

T H E

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Remarks upon the navigation from Newfoundland to New York, in order to avoid the gulf stream on one hand, and on the other the shoals that lie to the southward of Nantucket and of St. George's Banks. By Dr. Franklin.

AFTER you have passed the Banks of Newfoundland in about the 44th degree of latitude, you will meet with nothing, till you draw near the isle of Sables, which we commonly pass in latitude 43. Southward of this isle, the current is found to extend itself as far north as $41^{\circ} 20'$ or $30'$, then it turns towards the E. S. E. or S. E. $\frac{1}{2}$ E.

Having passed the isle of Sables, shape your course for the St. George's Banks, so as to pass them in about latitude 40° , because the current southward of those banks reaches as far north as 39° . The shoals of those banks lie in $41^{\circ} 35'$.

After having passed St. George's Banks, you must, to clear Nantucket, form your course so as to pass between the latitudes $38^{\circ} 30'$ and $40^{\circ} 45'$.

The most southern part of the shoals of Nantucket lies in about $40^{\circ} 45'$. The northern part of the current directly to the south of Nantucket, is felt in about latitude $38^{\circ} 30'$.

By observing these directions, and keeping between the stream and the shoals, the passage, from the Banks of Newfoundland to New York, Delaware, or Virginia, may be considerably shortened; for so you will have the advantage of the eddy current, which moves contrary to the gulf stream. Whereas, if, to avoid the shoals, you keep too far to the southward, and get into that stream, you will be retarded by it at the rate of sixty or seventy miles a day.

The Nantucket whalers being extremely well acquainted with the gulf stream, its course, strength, and extent, by their constant practice of whaling on the edges of it, from their island quite down to the Bahamas.

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the annexed draft of that stream was obtained from one of them, captain Folger, and caused to be engraved on the old chart in London, for the benefit of navigators by H. Franklin.

The Nantucket captains, who are acquainted with this stream, make their voyages from England to Boston in as short a time generally as others take in going from Boston to England, viz. from twenty to thirty days.

A stranger may know when he is in the gulf stream, by the warmth of the water, which is much greater than that of the water on each side of it. If then he is bound to the westward, he should cross the stream, to get out of it as soon as possible.



The plan of government adopted by the Oneida Nation.

I. TO fix the bounds and limits of the sovereignty of the Oneida nation—to let their vacant lands be properly surveyed, laid out into lots and numbered, and have an exact map made of the same,

II. Two men shall be appointed by the grand council, that are well known to be men of principle and interest in the nation; they shall be invested with power to act and transact all business concerning the leasing and dividing the said land or lands into equal shares, to each person and family, and they shall be obliged to render a true and just account of all their proceedings, from time to time, to the national council.

III. From the lines of property, a certain tract of wood land shall be reserved for the benefit of both parties, to wit, the farmers of the states, and the farmers of the proprietors of the Oneida nation, to prevent any difficulties that may arise on either side.

IV. A tract of land, of four miles in breadth, and extending from the line of property to the western boundary of the Oneida territory, secured

by the treaty at Fort-Stanwix, shall be rented out for the sole benefit of the said nation; which said land shall stand for a township forever.

V. The Oneida territory (except that which is fixed by treaty, to be rented out) must be equally divided into equal shares, to every man, woman, and child of the Oneida nation, without any exception. One tract of this said land to remain forever as a national fund, without any part thereof being alienated; and the revenues arising from the same, are to defray all public charges that may or shall hereafter accrue. The administration of this said tract, to be ordered and directed by the chiefs, in council, who shall render a true and just account, twice in every year, to the grand assembly of the said nation.

VI. No man, woman, or child, of the said Oneida nation, shall have it in his or her power, to sell one foot of land that shall fall to his or her lot or share, except it be to one of their own nation. All other bargains for such land shall be void and of none effect.

VII. If any mine or mines shall be discovered in any part of the Oneida territories, by any inhabitants settling their lands, he or they shall immediately acquaint the chief of said nation, and he shall take notice of the same: if it proves of value, the Oneida nation to receive the tenth part of the same. If any salt-spring or springs are discovered, or shall be discovered, they must be reserved for the benefit of the nation in general.

VIII. The grand council of the Oneidas shall have power to inform the several families of our nation at Niagara, or elsewhere scattered abroad, and if, when we call on them to return to their native place, they shall return with us, they shall be partakers of all our happiness and benefits, and we will be as one in every thing to the promoting of our welfare. But if, after one year and one day, they do not mind to return, after being timely warned, they shall not afterwards be benefitted by any of our incomes that shall hereafter arise, by virtue of our lands and tenements; but their rights must be forever confiscated to the use and benefit of us now present,

IX. The grand council shall have power (so soon as the lands are rented out, and the rents drawn in) to pay all debts which are due to every one in the nation. Each one, however, to be paid out of his or her own share of land so rented out.

X. The grand council shall have power to call on the state, to have an act or law passed, that, in case any person or persons settling in our lands, shall not comply with these articles of agreement, we may appeal to the first justice of the peace, that may be found in any county next to our territory, for rectifying our grievances, be they of what nature soever. The same justice and law shall also take place in this grand council, against any man, woman, or child, who shall hurt, wrong, or defraud any person or persons, inhabiting any of our said hired lands.

XI. The national or grand council shall consist of nine members—two chiefs and one head warrior of each tribe. The nomination of the nine chiefs, shall be by the great assembly of the nation. No person to approach in time of business, without being called for by the chiefs of said council. These nine members of council shall be vested with power to act and transact all and every business, belonging to the nation, and, in behalf of the same, shall, once in every year, call a general assembly, in which every person who is eighteen years old, can have a hearing; and, where every business for that year shall have a hearing.

XII. All children born in the Oneida nation, shall be in subjection to their parents, till they arrive to the age of maturity: boys to twenty-one, and girls to eighteen years of age; at which time of age, the father and mother may, if they have any thing to bestow, bestow it on them. It shall be equal with the daughter as with the son, without any distinction; and, in case a father dies, one-third part of all that pertained to him, shall be reserved for his widow, so long as she lives; but, when the mother also be dead, the whole to be divided among the children of the deceased.

XIII. If any man or woman of said nation die without issue, and has not disposed of his or her lands, or

goods, to any friend, or an adopted friend in his or her life-time, then all that is found of the deceased, shall be given to the orphans, if any such are to be found—if none, the whole to be distributed to the nation in general, so far as it will extend.

XIV. The grand council shall also be empowered to choose one man of a sober and honest character, to overlook the children in town, and see that, in general, they behave well to their parents and superiors; as also, to have a strict lookout, that no strong liquors, by any merchant or trader, are sold in the cattle; and, from this council, he shall have power to break the vessels where such liquor is found, after the first warning; and if any merchant or trader shall attempt the second time, after being warned not to sell any rum or spiritous liquors, all his liquors shall be stove, and his other goods become a public prize.

XV. A regular school to be opened in the English tongue, for the benefit of the Oneida nation. The nation building a house which shall prove convenient for that purpose; and setting apart a tract of clear land, part for the maintenance of the master and family, and the remainder to be hired out by the said master for his benefit, so long as he may continue in the aforesaid service, and then to go to the one who shall succeed him.

XVI. At the grand council it is also found beneficial that they be provided with one or two surveyors, to survey their lands from line to line, and then to lay all out in proper lots, with their numbers, as the map shall direct, to prevent any trouble or debate that might hereafter arise.

XVII. It is also judged necessary, that the grand council of the Oneida nation, should be furnished with one interpreter of their own; that they may always depend that he declares the truth of all business committed to his charge—to prevent mistakes, and save them from the alarm of false interpreting.

XVIII. So soon as the revenues of the nation will permit, the grand council will, at their discretion, look out six young men, of the age of twelve or thirteen years, that are of quick apprehension, apt to learn, as also of good and honest mo-

vals, to travel abroad—perhaps two to England, two to France, and two to some parts of the neighbouring states, or elsewhere, as their inclination may direct them, amongst the white people; to learn not only the languages, but to observe their ways and manners, which may and will prove very advantageous to the whole nation, in a few years, if rightly attended to.

XIX. The national assembly's desire is, that distinct rule, order, submission, and obedience be paid to the chiefs of the grand council, who shall be fitted with marks of distinction: in consequence of the same, it is resolved, that so soon as convenient materials can be procured, eighteen proper marks of distinction shall be given for that purpose; three, representing the tribe of the bear; three, the tribe of the wolf; and three, the tribe of the tortoise. The marks of the chiefs of war are, a green riband striped on the side with red, to be worn on the left side. Nine marks of distinction for the chiefs of the counsellors, with the mark of an eagle, on a red riband, to go round the neck, and hang between the breasts. Be it remembered, that those chiefs, whether warriors or counsellors, who wear this badge, must be men of truth, honour, and wisdom to discharge the great trust of national business now put into their hands; and whether at home, or abroad, when these marks are seen, it will be remembered, that they are of this great council, and great respect will, at all times, be shewn them.

XX. All things that will be for the national benefit, and may hereafter happen or occur, which are not here written, will, at all times, by this great council, be rectified to the satisfaction of the whole nation.

WE, the sachems, chiefs, and head warriors, in behalf of all the Oneida nation, after consideration of our present situation, have desired to establish a regular government, good rules, religion and principles, not only to the advancement of civilization, but also, to assure our friendship and zeal to all our brethren the Americans, as well as their allies, the French nation: in consideration whereof, we, the aforesaid nation, have established twenty articles of government, in the pre-

sence of the honourable Peter Penet, esq. our true and trully friend, adopted and chosen agent forever; to att for us, and for the good and happiness of our nation; which twenty articles of government, we, the Oneida nation, in council assembled, do hereby assent to, ratify, and confirm, and firmly bind ourselves, and all our nation, to hold, comply with, and fulfil the above-mentioned articles, and every of them, for the future happiness of ourselves and our posterity, forever, that we may obtain the character of a sociable and credible nation, and be looked on as such by all the nations of the world. In confirmation whereof, we have signed our names and set our seals, in behalf of our nation; two copies whereof are to be drawn, one for his excellency the governor of New York, and the other for the French ambassador, now residing in New York.

Given in the great house of Scandonoe, this twenty-fifth day of October, in the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and eighty-eight, and of our new government the first.

<i>Gashaweda,</i>	his X mark.
<i>Jeaghswoangelolis Puliol,</i>	his X mark.
<i>Agwientengwas. Dom. Peter,</i>	X.
<i>Joneaghslieheu, Daniel,</i>	his X mark.
<i>Thaacageandagoyon,</i>	his X mark.
<i>Allowstones, Blacksmith,</i>	his X mark.
<i>Kenjako. David,</i>	his X mark.
<i>Kahiktaton,</i>	his X mark.
<i>Sagoyontha,</i>	his X mark.
<i>Shonondongh,</i>	his X mark.
<i>Hannah Sodalk,</i>	her X mark.
<i>Seyonghnehalk, Konwagalet,</i>	X.
<i>Kononwayete,</i>	her X mark.
<i>Odaghseghte,</i>	his X mark.
<i>Kanaghguraya,</i>	his X mark.
<i>Peter Otsquette,</i>	
<i>Thaghniyongo,</i>	his X mark.
<i>Thonigweoghsokate,</i>	his X mark.
<i>Jekcandyakkon,</i>	his X mark.
<i>Osofutate, Hanury,</i>	his X mark.
<i>Ostetogen,</i>	his X mark.
<i>Teyohagwanda,</i>	his X mark.
<i>Onetyanha, Beech Tree,</i>	his X mark.
<i>Thaghneghtolis, Hendrick,</i>	X.
<i>Ohonouglego, Anthony,</i>	his X mark.
<i>Thaghtagwisa,</i>	his X mark.
<i>Shanaghjakigh,</i>	his X mark.

Signed and sealed in the presence of
P. Penet,

Edward Johnston, interpreter,
P. Chevalier de Goyon,
James Baudron,
Vaumane de Fonclaire,
J. F. Lebon,
Colonel Lue Cook, his X mark.
Witnellses, Rotgienher,
Margritte Guarinda see theene, her X mark.

These two witnesses, one a young man, and the other a young woman, were called by the grand council of our assembly, to remember this new plan of government, this day ratified, confirmed, and finished.

The two men mentioned in the second article, to act and transact the national business, are nominated and appointed by the great council of the Oneidas, to wit: colonel Lue Cook and Peter Otsquette.

Attested, P. PENNET, Agent.



An Indian anecdote.

THE world has ever considered, with the highest veneration, those who have devoted themselves to death, for the glory or the safety of their country and friends.

Regulus, Leonidas, the six famous burghers of Calais, with other great examples which occur in history, have in all ages been justly admired, as displaying the greatest nobleness of soul, whilst many particulars of their history have been esteemed fabulous by critics, as beyond the power of human resolution: and yet, in the history of those people we call savages, and whom we are too apt indiscriminately to treat with contempt, and consider as incapable of any sentiment above the level of the animal creation, we often find instances of greatness of mind which would do honour to the heroism and patriotism of the greatest and most polished nations. Perhaps the following interesting anecdote cannot be paralleled in ancient or modern history: it happened about twenty-eight years ago in the neighbourhood of New Orleans, and may be considered as authentic, being communicated by M. Boffe, an officer of distinction, who then enjoyed a considerable command in that country.

"The tragical death of an Indian of the Collapissa nation," says this gentleman, "who sacrificed himself

for his country and son, I have often admired as displaying the greatest heroism, and placing human nature in the noblest point of view. A Chactaw Indian, having one day expressed himself in the most reproachful terms of the French, and called the Collapissas their dogs and their slaves, one of this nation, exasperated at his injurious expressions, laid him dead on the spot. The Chactaws, the most numerous and most warlike tribe on that continent, immediately flew to arms; they sent deputies to New Orleans to demand from the French governor the head of the savage, who had fled to him for protection. The governor offered presents as an atonement: they were rejected with disdain: they threatened to extirpate the whole tribe of the Collapissas. To pacify this fierce nation, and prevent the effusion of human blood, it was at length found necessary to deliver up the unhappy Indian. The sieur Ferrand, commander of the German posts on the right of the Mississippi, was charged with this melancholy commission; a rendezvous was in consequence appointed between the settlement of the Collapissas and the German posts, where the mournful ceremony was conducted in the following manner:

"The Indian victim, whose name was Tichou Mingo (i. e. servant to the cacique or prince) was produced. He rose up, and agreeably to the custom of the people, harangued the assembly to the following purpose: "I am a true man; that is to say, I fear not death, but I lament the fate of my wife, and four infant children, whom I leave behind in a very tender age; I lament, too, my father and mother, whom I have long maintained by hunting; them, however, I recommend to the French; since, on their account, I now fall a sacrifice."

"Scarcely had he finished this short and pathetic harangue, when the old father, struck with the filial affection of his son, arose, and thus addressed himself to the audience. "My son is doomed to death; but he is young and vigorous, and more capable than me to support his mother, his wife, and his four infant children; it is necessary that he remain upon earth to protect and provide for them; as for me, who draw towards the end of my career,

I have lived long enough; may my son attain to my age, that he may bring up his tender infants; I am no longer good for any thing; a few years more or less, are to me of small moment. I have lived as a man—I shall die as a man. I therefore take the place of my son*."

"At these words, which expressed his paternal love and greatness of soul in the most touching manner, his wife, his son, his daughter-in-law, and the little infants, melted into tears around this brave, this generous old man. He embraced them for the last time, exhorted them to be ever faithful to the French, and to die rather than betray them by any mean treachery unworthy of his blood. "My death," concluded he, "I consider as necessary for the safety of my nation, and I glory in the sacrifice." Having thus delivered himself, he presented his head to the kinsmen of the deceased Chactaw; they accepted it; he then extended himself over the trunk of a tree, when, with a hatchet, they severed his head from his body.

"By this sacrifice all animosities were forgotten; but one part of the ceremony remained still to be performed. The young Indian was obliged to deliver to the Chactaws the head of his father: taking it up, he addressed it in these words: "Pardon me your death, and remember me in the world of spirits."—The French, who assisted at the tragedy, could not contain their tears, whilst they admired the heroic constancy of this venerable old man, whose resolution bore a resemblance to that of the celebrated Roman orator, who, in the time of the triumvirate, was concealed by his son: the young man was most cruelly tortured in order to force him to discover his father, who, not being able to endure the idea, that a son so virtuous and so generous, should thus suffer on his account, went and presented himself to the murderers, and begged them to kill him and save his son; the son

NOTE.

* The Indian nations follow the law of retaliation: death they consider as an atonement for death; and it is sufficient that it be one of the same nation, although he should not be a kinsman: they except none but slaves.

conjured them to take his life and spare the age of his father; but the soldiers, more barbarous than savages, butchered both instantly."



Some experiments concerning the impregnation of the seeds of plants, by James Logan, esq. communicated in a letter from him to Mr. Peter Collinson, F. R. S.

Philadelphia, Nov. 20, 1735.

AS the notion of a male seed, or the farina fecundans in vegetables, is now very common, I shall not trouble you with any observations concerning it, but such as may have some tendency to what I have to mention—and, first, I find from Miller's dictionary, that M. Geoffroy, a name I think of repute amongst naturalists, from the experiments he made on maize, was of opinion, that seeds may grow up to their full size, and appear perfect to the eye, without being impregnated by the farina, which possibly, for aught I know, may in some cases be true; for there is no end of varieties in nature:—but in the subject he has mentioned, I have reason to believe it is otherwise, and that he applied not all the care that was requisite in the management.

When I first met with the notion of this male seed, it was in the winter time, when I could do no more than think of it; but in the spring I resolved to make some experiments on the maize, or Indian corn. In each corner of my garden, which is forty foot in breadth, and near eighty in length, I planted a hill of that corn: and, watching the plants when they grew up to a proper height, and were pushing out both the tassels above, and ears below, from one of those hills I cut off the whole tassels; on others I carefully opened the ends of the ears, and from some of them I cut or pinched off all the filken filaments; from others I took about half, from others one fourth, and three fourths, &c. with some variety, noting the heads, and the quantity taken from each: other heads I tied up at their ends, just before the silk was putting out, with fine muslin, but the most nappy I could find, to prevent the passage of the farina; but that would

obstruct neither sun, air, nor rain. I fastened it also so very loosely, as not to give the least check to vegetation.

Of the five or six ears on the first hill, from which I had taken all the tassels, from whence proceeds the farina, there was only one that had so much as a single grain in it, and in about four hundred and eighty cells, had but about twenty or twenty-one grains; the heads, or ears, as they stood on the plant, looked as well to the eye as any other; they were of their proper length, the cores of their full size, but to the touch, for want of the grain, they felt light and yielding. On the core, when divested of the leaves that cover it, the beds of seed were in their ranges, with only a dry skin on each.

In the ears of the other hills, from which I had taken all the silk, and in those that I had covered with muslin, there was not so much as one mature grown grain, nor other than as I have mentioned in the first: but in all the others, in which I had left part, and taken part of the silk, there was in each the exact proportion of full grains, according to the quantity or number of the filaments I had left on them. And for the few grains I found on one head in the first hill, I immediately accounted thus: that head, or ear, was very large, and stood prominent from the plant, pointing with its silk wellward directly towards the next hill of Indian corn; and the farina, I know, when very ripe, on shaking the stalk, will fly off in the finest dust, somewhat like smoke. I therefore, with good reason, judged that a westerly wind had waisted some few of these particles from the other hill, which had lighted on the stiles of this ear, in a situation perfectly well fitted to receive them, which none of the other ears, on the same hill, had. And indeed I admire that there were not more of the same ear than I found, impregnated in the same manner.

As I was very exact in this experiment, and curious enough in my observations, and this, as I have related it, is truly fact, I think it may be reasonably allowed, that notwithstanding what M. Geoffroy may have delivered of his trials on the same plant, I am positive, by my experiment on those heads, from which the silk was taken

quite away, and those that were covered with mullin, that none of the grains will grow up to their size, when prevented of receiving the farina to impregnate them, but appear, when the ears of corn are disclosed, with all the beds of the seeds, or grains, in their ranges, with only a dry skin on each, about the same size as when the little tender ears appear filled with milky juice before it puts out its silk. But the few grains that were grown on the single ear, were as full and as fair as any I had seen; the places of all the rest had only dry empty pelli-
cles, as I have described them; and I much question whether the same does not hold generally in the whole course of vegetation, though, agreeably to what I first hinted, it may not be safe to pronounce absolutely upon it, without a great variety of experiments on different subjects. But I believe there are few plants that will afford so fine an opportunity of observing on them as the Indian corn; because its stiles may be taken off or left on the ear, in any proportion, and the grains be afterwards numbered in the manner I have mentioned.

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Resolves of the general assembly of Pennsylvania respecting alterations in the constitution of this state.

RESOLVED, that in the opinion of this house, alterations and amendments of the constitution of this state are immediately necessary.

And whereas, by the declaration of independence, it is declared as a self-evident truth, "that all men are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness; that to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed; that whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the right of the people to alter or to abolish it, and to institute a new government, laying its foundations in such principles, and organising its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their safety and happiness:" and whereas it is also declared by our own bill of rights, "that government is or ought to be

instituted for the common benefit, protection and security of the people, nation, or community, and not for the particular emolument or advantage of any single man, family, or set of men, who are a part only of that community; and that the community hath an indubitable, unalienable, and indefeasible right to reform, alter, or abolish government, in such manner as shall be by that community judged most conducive to the public weal:" from all which, as well as from the nature of society and the principles of government, it manifestly appears that the people have at all times an inherent right to alter and amend the form of government, in such manner as they shall think proper; and also that they are not and cannot be limited to any certain rule or mode of accomplishing the same, but may make choice of such method as to them may appear best adapted to the end proposed.

And whereas the burden and expenses of the present form of government are with difficulty borne, and various instances occur wherein this form is contradictory to the constitution of the united states, which every member of the legislature and all executive and judicial officers must be bound by oath or affirmation to support—circumstances which will not admit of the delay of the mode prescribed in the constitution—It is, therefore, further

Resolved, That it be and it is hereby proposed and earnestly recommended by this house, in execution of their trust, as faithful, honest representatives and guardians of the people, to the citizens of this commonwealth, that they take this important subject into their serious consideration. And should they concur in opinion with this house (it being the right of the people alone to determine on this interesting question) that a convention, for the purpose of revising, altering, and amending the constitution of the state, is necessary, it is hereby submitted to their decision, whether it will not be most convenient and proper for them to elect members of convention, of the same numbers and in the like proportions, for the city of Philadelphia and the several counties, with those of their representatives in assembly, on the

day of the next general election, at the places and in the manner prescribed in cases of elections of members of assembly by the laws of the state.

That this house, on the pleasure of the people in the premises being signified to them, at their next sitting, will provide by law for the expenses which will necessarily be incurred by the proposed convention, and will, if requested, appoint the time and place for the meeting thereof. And that the supreme executive council be, and they are hereby requested to promulgate this recommendation to the good people of this state, in such way and manner as to them shall seem most expedient for the purposes herein intended.

Philadelphia, March 24, 1789.



The friend.—Written by the rev. Timothy Dwight, under the signature of James Littlejohn, esq. P. 71.

No. 11.—The writer's account of himself.

AS every reader is generally possessed of a strong curiosity to know the character, and circumstances, of the author he reads, I shall exhibit my friendship to my readers, by an immediate attempt to gratify this curiosity.

I was born in the year 1748, in an inland town of this state. From its exact conformity to a description in Hudibras, I should conjecture it was the very place, the author of that poem had in his eye, when he observed—In the western clime there is a town, To those that dwell therein, well known;

Therefore there needs no more be said here,

We unto them refer our reader.

The circumstances of my birth were, as far as I can learn, in no respects different from those of infants in general. Neither owls, nor eagles, betokened my future greatness by perching, or hooting: nor have I the least reason to believe, that my father experienced more lively emotions of pleasure, upon the news of my arrival in his family, than are commonly experienced upon such occasions. Nothing singularly brilliant marked the dawn of my reason. I could nei-

ther speak, nor walk, sooner than is usual; nor was I less indebted than other infants, to the protection of those early guardians, the standing-stool, and the go-cart.

The first thing, by which my character was distinguished, as my grandmother has long since informed me, was that good nature, which usually fixes upon children the stigma of wanting common sense. I always gave up my top to my brother, when he cried for it; and frequently imparted my gingerbread to my sister, because she had eaten hers, and looked sorry.

"O the fool!" exclaimed my mother, upon seeing me so tamely yield up the favourite objects of infantine desire—I fear, said my father, all is not as it should be, with poor James—little did either of them then think that I should one day become a great man, commence author, and have my name printed as a writer of essays.

But my grandmother, who was a person of piety, was not a little pleased with these appearances of benevolence, in one so nearly connected with her. She often pressed me to her bosom, uttered over me all the epithets of tenderness, and told me, I was a dear little John; deriving the name from her favourite apostle, who, it is well known, excelled in the amiable attribute she so much praised and practised. As she often repeated this name, at the sight of some effusion of my benevolence, I soon became distinguished by it, in the family, and through the neighbourhood; and when I had arrived at the age of nine years, was scarcely known by any other.

The opinion which my parents entertained of my understanding, was not confined to the family. I was considered, as a poor, weak child, by every body except my grandmother, and the schoolmaster, whose praise I never failed to acquire, by excelling all my companions in the ease and exactness with which I performed the task assigned me. My uncommon progress in the acquisition of knowledge at school, which, it will be easily supposed, the master took proper care to communicate to my parents, was attributed to the extraordinary memory, usually believed to accompany feeble intellects. The character, I had gain-

ed at home, was rivetted by my conduct at school. I rarely joined with the school boys in their sports, because some of them appeared to me too insignificant, and others too cruel. While my companions were making mud puddings, or digging ovens in the sand, I was perusing the curious structure of a flower, or gazing at the sky, and wondering who lived beyond it. I often vexed them while pelting the frogs in a neighbouring pond, by rehearsing the fable of Æsop, on a similar occasion; and by frightening the butterflies, while they were reaching out their waistcoats to destroy them. But I easily regained their good will, and my own insignificance, by imparting to them the oranges, which daily rewarded my diligence.

As I increased in years and in size, different opinions began to be formed of my character, and destination. I totally shunned the diversions, which engrossed the attention of my fellows. Birdnesting gave me the highest sensations of pain, when I saw to what distress the parent bird was reduced by the loss of her eggs, or the plunder of her young. When the training of the militia assembled upon the parade all the boys of the school, I was employed in ruminating, with no small terror, on the dangers which threatened the limbs and lives of the multitude; and in sinking under a sense of the brutism, to which drunkenness would reduce many of them before the close of the evening. A horse race I abhorred as a gambling match, concerted by sharpers, who, with security, would have robbed on the highway; and lamented with anguish, the loss of comfort to the numerous families of the spectators, in the idleness, profusion, and immorality, created by this sordid amusement. I hated cards and dice, for the uniform meanness of the human character which I saw them produce; and despised them, because of the supreme insignificance of an honest player. I could not swear, because I loathed to offend my Maker; and because I was unwilling to be excelled in any practice which I called my own, by tars and shoe-blacks. The peculiarity of my conduct gained me many titles of distinction; and Littlejohn was in different mouths, a strange boy—a youth

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of no life—a coward—and a simpleton.

In the means time, I was not without my pleasures. Every production of nature gave me peculiar satisfaction; and every occurrence of happiness expanded my bosom with joy. The cheerful, the beautiful, the solemn, and the sublime, varied my sensations with a delightful series of agitation. In flowers, I traced a pencil, compared to which I believed Titian was a dauber; and in many a human form, an elegance of moulding, compared to which I convinced myself the author of the *Venus de Medicis* was but a carver of radishes. A solemn dignity swelled all my feelings, beneath the wild grandeur of the rude and lofty mountain. From the summit of that mountain, I beheld with transport the majestic diversities of infinite workmanship; and anticipated, with ecstatic vision, the period, when a wish would waft me to a distant world, more easily than I beheld the eagles sail from one summit to another.

As I was literally "good for nothing to work," my father sent me to a neighbouring college, to see if he could make any thing of me. The original cast of nature is irresistible. Amidst all my father's wishes, and my tutor's laborious efforts, I was still Littlejohn. To money I was totally indifferent, but of my books was highly enamoured. Possessed, as my father emphatically remarked to my tutor, of an extraordinary memory, I easily became a scholar, and by diligence and obsequiousness, soon gained a place in my tutor's affections. Often did he commend me in such terms, as proved his earnest wish, that nature had done more for me; nor could he easily conceive how a person possessed of so much ability to learn, should at the same time possess so little sense. My fellow students loved, and laughed at me; some of them thought me a great genius, and some of them thought me a blackhead; but all agreed that I was a strange creature.

After I quitted my academical life, I applied myself to the study of healing. I have often thought it owing to mere misfortune, not to want of abilities, that I gained but little reputation in the medical character. My extreme fears of doing harm com-

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monly prevented me from doing any good : in my anxiety to accomplish their relief with expedition, I frequently forgot the medicines, with which I hoped to produce it : and in the indulgence of a compassionate disposition to the poor of the vicinity, I was often necessitated to tell my customers, that I would visit the sick, as soon as my neighbour Frost returned from the mill. From these circumstances was derived a proverbial remark, in the town where I lived, that dr. Littlejohn was always too late.

While I was despairing of either character, or practice in my profession, my father's death furnished me with a competent sinecure, and determined me to quit every kind of business. In the execution of this design, I became a mere, but not a cool spectator of human life ; and, separated from every personal concern, soon made the business of all others my own. I was not indeed manager, or meddler ; but I earnestly wished the happiness of my fellow men ; and, to promote it, cheerfully tendered my advice and assistance.

A character like this will ever be exposed to adventures. Most of those I met with, were more entertaining to my companions than to myself. The first of April was always a merry-making at my expense ; and no small number of sacrifices did I annually offer at the shrine of the saint, to whom that festival is dedicated. To the wits, and the blockheads, my mistakes furnished equal diversion ; and the size of six feet three inches, to which I arrived at fifteen, while it fixed on me beyond recall, the name of my childhood, added not a little to the sport of innumerable successful rogueries by which I was daily a sufferer.

The well known custom of asking a stranger his name, in various parts of New England, has furnished me with numerous adventures. Though it frequently subjects me to not a little impertinence, I communicate my name with the utmost readiness to every enquirer. Not long since, after I had passed several hundred yards by a house in the interior country, I was summoned back by the owner, with no small vociferation. As I approached him, he very gravely and authorita-

tively asked me my name. " Littlejohn, sir." " Littlejohn ! are you a cousin of Joseph Littlejohn of this town ?" " Not that I know, sir," rejoined I. " Well, sir," answered he, " you may go on then, that was what I wished to know, when I hailed you." From a warm temper, the man might have received a caning ; I very quietly turned my horse, and was not a little pleased in the satisfaction the stranger enjoyed in such an interesting discovery.

A similar disposition induced me to overcome my natural modesty, and appear at the head of this paper. Beside the hopes I entertain of adding to the stock of human knowledge, I have no small expectation of furnishing the tea-table with a subject of convenient chit chat : of assisting children in learning to read ; of aiding the smoker to light his pipe, and his wife to bake her gingerbread. In my lucubrations, the student may find arguments he is too lazy to invent ; the retailer of private history may make himself happy, in his pretended acquaintance with my real character ; and the magazine critic may exhibit his taste, and indulge his good nature, in learned strictures on the style and sentiments of friend Littlejohn.

Newhaven, March 30, 1786.



THE VISITANT. NO. IX.

Remarks on the fair sex.

EVERY generous man should view the sentiments and actions of the fair sex in the most favourable light. I can ascribe the contrary practice to nothing but an unmanly spirit, since, in many cases, those guilty of it cannot vindicate themselves consistently with the laws of delicacy. Nature has made man the protector, and the fair sex require our protection ; he, who would refuse his protection, when it is necessary, would be reproached with cowardice, and much more if he should take advantage of their weakness. But is not he, who injures a woman's character, to be esteemed as great a coward, as he who assaunts her person ? Certainly he is ; the former is an insult on the modesty, and the latter upon the natural weakness of the sex.

There is but one way in which we

can suppose a lady may vindicate herself from a false imputation, and that is by the tenor of her actions. But then how liable are actions to be misconstrued! When once a slanderous tongue has given the clue, the world will be too apt to ascribe every thing to a wrong principle; even the candid are sometimes misled, and form suspicions which their honour would otherwise have prevented.

The practice of viewing the female conduct in an unfavourable light, subjects the sex to many disadvantages, which I have observed in the course of my acquaintance—I shall embrace this opportunity of mentioning a few of them.

A lady is very seldom mistress of her choice of company of our sex, and yet her character depends very much upon it. If the fop, the libertine, and the impertinent, were treated by a lady with the contempt which their characters deserve, it would expose her to censure, which I think no woman of prudence would be willing to incur; and yet too open a behaviour makes some people conclude, that she approves of or at least that she does not sincerely condemn their vices. The question then arises, how should she behave herself to men who are remarkable for qualities which it is her duty to despise? why I think she should never give just cause of offence by expressing any dislike of their persons, but then let her discover a proper abhorrence of their vices, by never shewing an hearty regard for those who are guilty of them. This is a medium which it is difficult, and in some cases, I believe, impossible to pursue; and the more a lady is distinguished by her good nature and sincerity, the more liable would she be to mistake sometimes in this particular; but these circumstances render such men inexcusable, who take every opportunity of making observations injurious to their reputation.

I know of no vice which deforms the female mind more than envy; now I have observed a class of men who are very expert in resolving the actions and sentiments of ladies into this principle; nay, they go further, and use every occasion to oblige them to discover such appearances as may favour their ill natured disposition.

A man of this cast will make a reflexion in a circle of ladies to the disadvantage of one of the sex; he intends it as a bait to allure the ill-nature and malice of the company, and indeed it is very difficult to avoid his artifice, either by censuring or vindicating the character he exposes. In the former case he makes no scruple of ascribing it to the principle which he desired to discover; in the latter, he reflects that a woman's own honour may be sometimes concerned in concealing the foibles to which her sex is liable. There are others who practice a method still more artful and ungenerous than the one I have mentioned; they will praise an absent lady for qualities which she does not possess; if the fair one to whom it is addressed, ventures with more sincerity than prudence, to differ in opinion, this affords them a fresh argument upon their darling theme of female malice; silence meets with no better reception; if she allows a faint praise, her soft words discover to them an envious heart; and even where a just and cordial praise is allowed to merit, who has not observed that insincerity has borrowed the same expressions, and that a woman's hatred may be sometimes computed by the ardency of her applause?

Flattery is a fashionable snare to entangle female vanity; and I know of no method more successful, when a man is disposed to put an unfavourable construction upon every thing he sees. If it is received with applause, with what satisfaction does the base deceiver congratulate himself upon his success? Hence some ladies to avoid all such appearances, shew themselves displeased when they are attacked in this way; but alas! they succeed no better than the former; for it is easy enough for the confident fellow to console himself with this reflexion, that the vain creature takes the compliment almost before it was intended.

What shall we say to the practice of offending a woman's ears with expressions which her delicacy ought not to permit her to listen to? This is an expedient generally made use of to try whether female virtue is any thing more than a mere pretence. The least smile is looked upon as an approba-

tion; nay, it is read in the eye if nothing else discovers it; if a lady blushes, she is thought to take the meaning too soon, and if she is angry, no doubt she must be an hypocrite. What behaviour then do modestly and good sense dictate? An entire disregard. But then it is impossible for a woman to be at all times so much mistress of herself, when she has no reason to expect that such an offence will be given; however, she ought always to treat such a man with the indifference and reserve, which are due to one who thinks meanly of her virtue.

General reflexions against the fair sex, are no less unmanly, than the vices I have been exposing. These must give great uneasiness to the considerate part of them, because they are interested in the general idea which is formed of the female character; and it must be no less offensive to the delicacy and generosity of the sensible of ours. The evil I am speaking of, is of more importance than is generally imagined; for who will deny that our happiness depends in a considerable degree upon our connexions with the fair part of our species? And is it not equally plain, that their influence is in a great measure regulated by the sentiments we entertain of them?

There are some men, whose minds are incapable of the pleasures we derive from a near alliance with the fair sex, and the unfavourable sentiments of these proceed from a settled dislike. Nature has cast them in an indelicate mould, and it is remarkable, that the men I am describing, seldom discover, in other instances of their life, that they are very susceptible of the sympathetic feelings; no wonder, then, if they distinguish themselves in their disposition towards women; the love, of which they are capable, resembles that of the brutes: it exempts them from the uneasiness to which a more tender frame is exposed, but then it deprives them of the exalted happiness which we derive from the refined affections.

There are others, again, who are angry at all womankind, for no other reason but certain injuries which they think they have received from particulars. A young lady (for instance) plays the coquette with her admirer; the

latter forever after rails at the sex, as a set of coquettes. Another is disappointed in love, and therefore he pities every poor fellow that has any thing to say to a woman. A third hears that a certain lady has taken occasion to express her disapprobation of him, or of some of his actions. Without considering whether he deserved the censure or not, he swears that slander is the darling topic of every female.

It is not my present design to point out the several causes which give men unfavourable sentiments of the fair sex. I content myself with shewing, that they generally proceed from wrong principles, and with expressing my disapprobation of any thing which can cast an odium upon the sex in general. I have observed, that men of sense consider the fair part of our species as wisely designed by nature to promote the happiness of social life, and respect those qualities in them, which are calculated to answer that end.

The following letter I received the other day, from a gentleman who appears to be out of humour with the fair sex; whether his reflexions are just or not, I leave to be considered by the accused party.

Mr. Visitant,

"I HAVE read your papers with a good deal of pleasure, and am glad to find that we have a person among us, who seems to have so general a knowledge of mankind—As you have confined yourself in a great measure to the fair and beautiful part of the creation, it was not without some concern, that I discovered you were rather velvet mouthed; and that instead of lashing the foibles of those delightful objects, at the same time that you praise their virtues, you seem much inclined to think they have no foibles at all. Some there are, I readily grant, who are all perfection, but these are

"Raræ aves in terris"

"Something seldom to be found."

"The generality of the pretty creatures think too much of themselves; and I have often remarked, that some of them would be much handsomer, if they were not too conscious of the ascendancy they have over us men—This is not the only fault I have to find with them, when

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a select party of young ladies meet together, while they are enjoying themselves over their tea-table, the voice of slander is often too predominant; and instead of entertaining one another with agreeable anecdotes, or talking upon general subjects, they confine themselves too much to rail-lery, and throwing out severe sarcasms against those of their coevals whom they think handsomer, or who dress finer than themselves; so that instead of embellishing their minds by entertaining and edifying reflexions, their sole aim and view is to revile their neighbours—I have pitched upon those two as some of the principal of their errors—and would advise you to enlarge not only upon these, but upon every other of their faults that comes within your knowledge; then you will act up to your character; and without that, I think you cannot properly take upon yourself the title of a Visitant.

Your very humble servant,

T. S. B."

Philadelphia, March 18, 1768.



Estimate of the expenses of machines, labour, &c. for manufacluring cotton.

ONE machine for carding of cotton, will cost about fifty pounds. One man will work this machine, and card about twenty pounds of cotton per day.

One spinning machine, commonly called a jenny, with forty spindles, (which is a proper number) will cost about thirteen pounds. One man or woman will work this machine, and will spin from four to six pounds of good yarn per day, of a suitable degree of fineness for good jeans, sustians, &c.

After the cotton is carded, the next operation is roping it, which is, uniting the roles together, and drawing a coarse thread, nearly such as is commonly used for candlewick. This is done on a common wheel—a woman will rope about four pounds per day, for which she receives five-pence per pound.

One pound of this cotton yarn will fill six yards of very good jeans—it usually fills more; but then the goods are proportionally lighter,

Two pounds of good flax, from the swingle, will make one pound of heckled flax—this flax being spun to two dozen and six cuts to the pound, which is a proper sized yarn for common jeans—eighteen dozen will make chain for fifty yards—eight pounds of cotton yarn will fill these fifty yards.

The cotton yarn, spun on the machines in Philadelphia, costs, on an average, about thirteen-pence half-penny per pound, besides the carding and roping. The man, who turns the machine, is employed by the day: his wages, when the days are long, are about three shillings and nine-pence per day.

The weaver in Philadelphia, has seven-pence per yard for weaving common jeans; besides having his chain wound for him, and the winding his quills—he will weave about seven yards per day.

Women attend on the weavers, to wind their chains and quills, for about seven shillings and six-pence per week, and find themselves—one woman can attend three looms.

The dyers ask four-pence per yard for dying jeans; but they may be well afforded at half that price.

The following is an estimate of the expense on fifty yards of jean:

Eighteen dozen of flax-	£. s. d.
en yarn will make the chain for fifty yards of jean, at eighteen-pence per dozen,	1 7 0
Eight pounds and one third of cotton yarn, will fill the same, at five shillings per pound,	2 1 3
Weaving fifty yards, at eight-pence per yard,	1 13 4
Dying fifty yards, at three-pence per yard,	12 6
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	£. 5 14 6

The above estimate is calculated for fifty yards of very good jeans, such as will sell for three shillings per yard, which is,

7 10 0

Profit, £. 1 15 6

N. B. The price is supposed to be a retail one. The calculation of expense is made rather high than otherwise: so that if the manufacturer understands his business, and works to

the best advantage, his profits will be rather more than as above stated.

Observations on the use of acids in bleaching of linen. By dr. Eason.

THE use of acids, in bleaching of linen, has been long known. Formerly milk was chiefly employed; but it had several inconveniencies. The quantity requisite could scarcely be obtained; its effect was slow; and, containing animal matter, it was apt to rot and spoil the cloth.

About thirty years ago, it was discovered, that the fossil acids, when properly diluted with water, answered much better, and would do more in a few hours, than animal acids could do in a week, in facilitating the whitening of cloth.

At first, it was imagined, that the mineral acids would be apt to burn or corrode linen substances, when immersed in them. But experience soon dispelled such fears, and convinced bleachers, that, by proper management, the danger was next to none.

According to the strength of the acids, they must be mixed with water, sometimes to seven hundred times their bulk.

The nitrous acid, being the most corrosive, and most expensive, has not been used.

The vitriolic acid is that which has universally been employed: not because it is preferable to the muriatic acid, but because it was to be bought in large quantities, and at a small expense.

The muriatic acid being now sold nearly as cheap as the vitriolic, and answering in a superior degree, will, in a short time, I am convinced, be generally adopted by bleachers.

As I must confess my ignorance in the art of bleaching, it may seem presumptuous in me to hazard a conjecture concerning the manner in which acids act in whitening cloth; but it seems probable, that alkaline salts, which are used in washing out the oil and glutinous parts of flax, on which the green colour depends, deposite an earth, in the pores of the cloth. As it is known that acids will also dissolve the earthy parts of vegetables, that acid should be preferred, which will keep earthy particles suspended

in water. The vitriolic, therefore, is not so proper; because, with earthy substances, it forms immediately a selenite; a substance only soluble, in a very large quantity of water. This selenitic matter, adhering to the threads of the cloth, will injure it, and make it feel hard to the touch, and probably is the reason, why some linens wear so badly.

When the muriatic acid is used, no selenite is formed. Whatever quantity of earthy matter is dissolved by it, is easily washed out by pure soft water, and the cloth, having a soft silky feel, seems to strengthen this conjecture.

Advice to American farmers, about to settle in new countries.

I. **A**VOID removing to Kentucky and Niagara, for the following reasons.

1. You will be exposed to great danger of being killed by the Indians on your way to those places.

2. You will be out of the reach, should you arrive at either of those places, of the protection of the new federal government of the united states.

3. You will probably be forever separated from your relations and friends.

4. You will be deprived of the advantages, for many years, of public worship, and of schools for the instruction of your children.

5. You will labour for little, or nothing, for while you will be obliged to pay fifteen shillings for a pair of shoes, and in the same proportion for many other of the necessaries of life, you will be obliged to sell your wheat for one shilling and your Indian corn for six-pence a bushel.

II. Avoid settling in those states where negro slavery prevails. Poor farmers can never thrive among slaves. Your children will be corrupted by their vices, and the slave-holders will never treat you like christians, or fellow-citizens.

III. Choose lands for a settlement that are near those navigable waters that run towards the Atlantic ocean, and which are within the jurisdiction of the united states. The lands on the east and west branches of the Susquehanna, and on the creeks which empty into it, are of an excellent qua-

ivy. The timber (which consists of sugar maple, beech, wild cherry, hemlock, &c.) is large, but the land is easily cleared, inasmuch as grubbing is seldom necessary upon it. The beech lands yield from thirty to forty bushels of wheat per acre, and afford besides excellent pasture. Wheat sells on these lands for four shillings and sixpence and five shillings per bushel, and when the navigation and roads thro' those lands are improved, it will probably sell for much more. The lands in the bottoms on these waters yield hemp in great quantities, which sells in Philadelphia at a greater profit than wheat. The disputes at Wyoming are in a fair way of being quieted for ever. At present, order and good government prevail in that part of the country—the banditti, who formerly disturbed it, having moved off towards the lakes.

IV. Carry with you, wherever you go, a quantity of apple seeds—peach stones and garden seeds—particularly the seeds of peas—beans—turnips—pumpkins—carrots—and beets. These last all grow easily in new ground, and afford an immense increase. They afford moreover excellent food for cattle and horses, and save a great expense in grain, which has been proved to be of too heating a nature for those animals. Carry with you likewise a large kettle, in which you may make maple sugar in summer, and potash in winter. Half a dozen pounds of powder and shot, with a good gun, will be necessary, to provide food for your family, before you will be able to raise stock enough for that purpose. Take with you a few pairs of strong home made stockings and shoes—also a few horse shoes with nails to fix them on—for these articles are procured with difficulty in a new settlement. A farmer must carry with him the iron parts of all his implements of husbandry. There is one more article that must not be left behind, if a farmer wishes to prosper in a new country, and that is the bible. There are several expensive parts of household furniture that he should leave behind him, for which he will have no use in the woods—such as a large looking glass—china cups and saucers—old pictures—and above all, a brandy or whisky case. Pure water from the

virgin springs on his farm on common occasions, and maple beer, or cyder, in the time of harvest, will afford him wholesome and agreeable drinks. A farmer who is temperate and industrious on his new farm, cannot fail in the course of his life, of leaving a handsome estate to his children.

V. In planting your orchard, do not fail to prefer sweet apple trees to all others. They will also furnish you with the best Pomona wine and the richest syrup. Be careful likewise to preserve all the sugar maple, persimmon and chestnut trees you find on your farm. The two former will afford you excellent sugar and syrup, and the last will furnish you with a nut which will be a wholesome and cheap substitute for West-India coffee.

VI. The last advice I shall give is, for families of the same religion to settle in a country together. By those means they will be able sooner to erect a place of worship, and to support ministers and schoolmasters. Without the restraints of religion and social worship, men become savages much sooner, than savages become civilized by means of religion and civil government.

The human imagination can hardly conceive a picture more agreeable, than the sight of a family, depressed by poverty in an old settlement, removing to a new country—and there creating new sources for independence and affluence, by converting woods into meadows and fields—causing forest trees to yield to orchards; weeds to regular gardens, and beasts of prey to useful domestic animals. To this picture of human happiness there can be but one addition, and that is, the same family carrying with them, and preserving in their new settlement, a sense of the obligations of religion, and of the blessings of a wife, just and vigorous government.



A vulgar error detected.

THERE is no greater error than the opinion, that manufacturers can flourish only where labour is cheap. The reverse of this opinion is true. Sir William Temple ascribes the poverty of Ireland entirely to the low price of labour in that country. Mr. Young, in his agricultural tour through

England, remarks that agriculture and manufactures flourish most in those towns and counties where provisions and labour command a generous price. It is necessary, in order to give industry its highest vigour, to hold out to men such liberal encouragement as shall animate them with the prospect of accumulating property, and thereby of bettering their condition; and this can never be done where labour and provisions are very cheap. Hence we find that all cheap countries are poor and idle. These facts, it is to be hoped, will serve to remove the ill-grounded fears and prejudices of those men who croak over all attempts to establish manufactures in the united states. In spite of the vulgar fashion of thinking upon this subject, it is a truth, that America enjoys more advantages to become a great and manufacturing country, than any other nation upon the face of the earth.

Directions for making blue letters on polished sword blades.

TAKE a well polished blade, and hold it over a charcoal fire till it is blue; then with oil colour write such letters as you wish should appear and remain, and let them dry; then warm some strong vinegar, and pour the infusion all over the blade, which will infallibly take off the blue colour. After this process, a little common warm water will take off the oil colours, and the letters will appear and remain of a curious and indelible blue: the same may be done with equal success on a common penknife, or any other instrument.

On abuse of titles of distinction.

NOTHING shews the propensity of the Americans, to monarchy, more, than their disposition to give titles to all our officers of government. Honourable and esquire have become as common in America, as captain in France—count in Germany—or, my lord, in Italy. Scipio was Scipio in the senate of Rome, and Hannibal was Hannibal in the republic of Carthage. No titles could have been invented that could have added to the respect or splendor of their names.

The titles of grace—wisdom—majesty—holiness—highness—mightiness, &c. are all nothing but little and big bones, which are thrown at the great bull-dogs in power in Europe, to keep them from biting off the heads of their subjects. In the united states, we have nothing to fear from our rulers; let us not therefore affront them, nor degrade ourselves, by ascribing to them the attributes of the Deity, and thereby raise them above the obligations and duties of their stations.—

Anecdote.

A CERTAIN Dutch justice of the peace, in New-York (when an English province) having issued a summons, returnable on the Sabbath-day, the constable, into whose hands it was put to be served, being a fellow of some humour, returns the summons agreeably to date; the justice expecting it to be of some other nature, perused it, and finding what it was, said in a great passion, *vat de Devil you brings dis do day vor?* Why, replied the constable, see whether it is not returnable this day, and should I neglect my duty, you would no doubt report to the grand jury, and in all probability have me severely fined; upon which the justice with a loud voice proclaimed, *I adjourns this courts till next Wend/day*, and calls to his son, saying, *Hauus, look off de almanack, and sees as dat vil be on de Sunbaths day?*

Anecdote.

DURING the late war, an Irishman in the American service, having come by surprise on a small party of Hessians, who were foraging, seized their arms, which they had laid aside. He then presented his musket, and with threats drove them before him to the American camp, where the singularity of the exploit occasioning some wonder, he was brought, with his prisoners, before general Washington, who asked him how he had taken them? "By J—s, general," said he, "I surrounded them."

An attempt to account for the change of climate, which has been observed in the middle colonies in North America. By Hugh Williamson, M. D. August 17th, 1770.

IT is generally remarked, by people who have resided long in Pennsylvania and the neighbouring colonies, that, within the last forty or fifty years, there has been a very observable change of climate; that our winters are not so intensely cold, nor our summers so disagreeably warm, as they have been.

That we may be enabled to account for these phenomena, it will be necessary to take a transient view of the general cause of winds, and the remarkable difference of heat and cold, that is observed in different countries under the same parallels.

Though the sun is doubtless the general source of heat, yet we observe that countries are not heated in proportion to their distance from the sun, nor even in proportion to their distance from the equator. The inhabitants of the polar circles are hardly a perceivable distance, not a twenty thousandth part farther from the sun, than those between the tropics, and yet the former are chilled with perpetual cold, while the others are scorched with constant heat.

When the rays of the sun strike the earth in a perpendicular direction, they will be reflected in the same direction on the particles of air through which they have passed, and thus increase their heat; a greater number of direct rays will also strike the earth in any given space, than when they fall obliquely; therefore, the nearer the direction of the sun's rays is to a perpendicular with the surface of the earth, the greater, *ceteris paribus*, will the heat be. Hence, countries should be colder the nearer they are to the poles. But,

We observe that the air may be heated to a very different degree in different countries, which are in the same latitude, according as they abound in rough mountains, fertile plains, or sandy deserts; as they are surrounded by land or by sea, or according to the different winds, which prevail in those countries. The temperature of Pennsylvania is very different from that of Portugal; and the

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temperature of England is different from that of Saxony, on the neighbouring continent, though they are under the same parallels. In order, then, that we may be enabled to form an estimate of the heat of any country, we must not only consider the latitude of the place, but also the face and situation of the country, and the winds which generally prevail there; if any of these should alter, the climate must also be changed. The face of a country may be altered by cultivation, and a transient view of the general cause of winds will convince us, that their course may also be changed.

It is generally believed, that most winds are occasioned by the heat of the sun. Were the sun to stand still over any particular part of the surface of the earth, the wind would constantly blow to that place from all directions. For the air in that part being rarified by the heat of the sun, would be expanded, and thus become lighter, whence it would ascend, and the heavier air, in the neighbouring parts, would rush in, to occupy its place; this, too, being heated both by the sun's rays, and by the warm surface of the earth, would instantly ascend to give place to that which was colder. But as the sun moves, or seems to move, between the tropics, from east to west, there should be a constant current of air setting towards the sun from the north, south, and eastward, while the current, which would also come from the west, is prevented or turned back by the sun, who moves with great rapidity on the opposite direction. The current, coming from the north and south, falls in with that from the eastward, and is presently bent in the same direction. This constitutes what seamen call a trade wind; such is found in the Atlantic, and in the great South Sea.

Were the surface of the earth homogeneous, were it all covered with water, or all smooth dry land, the easterly winds would always prevail quite round the globe to some distance beyond the tropics. But the waters along the equator, are divided by two or three considerable portions of land, which retain the heat in a different manner from the water, and reflect the sun's rays in very different proportions, so that they not only stop the easterly

current of air, but often change it to the opposite direction. For along the westerly coast of Africa, and South America, the winds commonly blow from the west. That is to say, they blow from a cold surface to that which is warmer, they blow from the sea in upon the land. For,

In warm countries, or in the warm season of any country, the surface of the land is warmer than the surface of the water.

In cold seasons of temperate countries, the surface of the land is colder than the surface of the water.

The surface of the earth being immovably exposed to the sun, receives and retains the heat, and grows warmer by every adventitious ray; so that a hard smooth surface will sometimes become intolerable to the touch; but the heat does not sink deep, except in a considerable progress of time.

The surface of the sea is not soon heated, for the particles which are uppermost this hour, will presently be overwhelmed by those which are colder, and they, by others in succession; whence it happens, that though the surface of the sea will not become so warm by a summer's heat as the surface of the earth, in the same climate, yet the heat will penetrate deeper, and be longer retained.

Let us transfer these trite and general reasonings to the situation of our middle colonies, with respect to land and water. Our coast runs nearly from north east to the south west; so that if the land should at any time be colder than the sea, and a current of cold air should set towards the sea, it must pass from the north west to the south east: but such winds we find generally take place during our winter season. For the Atlantic, to the south eastward, is greatly heated during the summer season, and will not soon lose that heat when the sun goes to the southward in the winter; add to this, a very notable circumstance, which is, that our coast is constantly washed by a current of warm water, which being driven to the west by the easterly trade winds near the equator, is checked in the Gulf of Mexico, and obliged to escape to the north eastward, to give place to the succeeding current. But the surface of these colonies soon grows cold in the ab-

sence of the sun. Hence violent torrents of winds pass towards the Atlantic during the winter season; the colder the air is over the continent, the more violent will those north westerly be.

Can we discover any change of circumstances, which might reduce the violence of those north-westerly, or remove them entirely? It is very obvious that hard smooth surfaces reflect heat better than those which are rough and unequal; the surface of a looking glass, or any polished metal, will reflect more light and heat, than the rough surface of a board. In the same manner, we observe, that rocks and smooth beds of sand reflect more heat, than a soft broken surface of clay. A clear smooth field also reflects more heat, than the same space would have done, when it was covered with bushes and trees.

If the surface of this continent were so clear and smooth, that it would reflect so much heat as might warm the incumbent atmosphere, equal to the degree of heat produced by the neighbouring Atlantic, an equilibrium would be restored, and we should have no stated north-west winds: but we have already made considerable approaches to this very period: our north-west winds, during the winter season, are less frequent, less violent, and of shorter continuance, than formerly they were. Seamen, who are deeply interested in this subject, inform us, that in the winter season they have been beating off our coast three, four, or five weeks, not able to put in, by reason of the north-westerly; they are now seldom kept off twice that number of days. It is also agreed, that the hardness of our frosts, the quantity and continuance of our snows, are very unequal now, to what they have been, since the settlement of this province.

It has been objected, that the small alteration which the surface of a country undergoes, in being cleared and cultivated, is not equal to producing such considerable changes of climate, as have been observed to take place in many parts of the world. I shall not say, that a change of climate may not arise from other causes than the one I have described. It is very certain, that the simple solution of water

in air will produce cold, which may be increased by a solution of nitrous salt. There are sundry other causes, from which the heat of the air may be increased or diminished, yet I cannot recollect a single instance of any remarkable change of climate, which may not be fairly deduced from the sole cultivation of the country. The change which has happened in Italy, and some countries to the eastward, within the last seventeen centuries, is thought to be a strong objection to this general rule. It is said, "that Italy was better cultivated in the Augustine age than it is now; but the climate is much more temperate now than it was at that time. This seems to contradict the opinion, that the cultivation of a country will render the air more temperate."

I shall consider this observation the more attentively, because I find it has been made by an ingenious writer, of great classical erudition.

It is not to be dissembled that their winters in Italy were extremely cold about seventeen hundred years ago. Virgil has carefully described the manner in which cattle were to be sheltered in the winter, lest they should be destroyed by the frost and snow; he also speaks of wine being frozen in the casks, and several other proofs of such extreme cold, as would surprize us in this province. Though it is also clear, that the Italians are now as great strangers to cold and frost, as those of Georgia or South-Carolina. To account for this remarkable change, we must go beyond the narrow limits of Italy; we must traverse the face of Hungary, Poland, and Germany, those vast regions to the northward of Rome. The Germans have certainly made great progress in population and agriculture, since Julius Cæsar with a few legions overran that country; for, notwithstanding the elegance with which Cæsar describes his victories, he certainly had to contend with a set of barbarians and savages, whose country was rude and uncultivated as their minds. The general face of those kingdoms was covered with wild extensive forests, a few of which remain to this day. The small scattered tribes who occupied them, had done very little towards the perfecti-

on of agriculture. From these uncultivated deserts, piercing north winds used to descend in torrents on the shivering Italian, though his own little commonwealth was finely cultivated. No person need be informed how numerous the nations are, who now inhabit Hungary, Poland, and Germany, or how generally those regions are now cultivated, even to the very edge of the Baltic and German ocean, so that if the cold is greatly moderated in Germany, and the adjacent northern states, which, I believe, is generally allowed, we may easily perceive how it should be moderated to a much greater degree in Italy, which being in a low latitude, was only annoyed by the cold winds from the northern kingdoms. For the air was at that time so cold over those uncultivated regions, that it could effectually destroy the balance in the warmer atmosphere of Italy, which at present is not the case.

As we might have conjectured from established principles of philosophy, that clearing and smoothing the face of a country, would promote the heat of the atmosphere, and in many cases would prevent or mitigate those winter blasts, which are the general origin of cold, whence the winters must become more temperate, and as facts appear to support and confirm our reasoning on this subject, we may rationally conclude, that in a series of years, when the virtuous industry of posterity shall have cultivated the interior part of this country, we shall seldom be visited by frosts or snows, but may enjoy such a temperature in the midst of winter, as shall hardly destroy the most tender plants.

Perhaps it may be apprehended, that as clearing the country, will mitigate the cold of our winters, it will also increase the heat of our summers; but I apprehend, that on a careful attention to this subject, we shall find, that the same cause will in those seasons appear to produce different effects, and that instead of more heat, we shall presently have less in summer than usual.

It is well known, that during the greatest summer heats of this or any other country, the extraordinary heat of the atmosphere does not rise to any considerable height. In the upper regi-

ons it is perpetually cold, both because the air in those parts is too far from the earth, to be warmed by the heat of its surface, and because the air in those regions, not being pressed by such a weight of incumbent atmosphere, is too rare to be susceptible of a great degree of heat; for the heat of the air, as of every other body, that is warmed by the sun, depends not only upon the simple action of the particles of light upon those of the air, but also upon the mutual action of the particles of air upon one another, which, by their elasticity, propagate or continue that motion, called heat, which was originally excited by the sun's rays. Therefore, the rarer the atmosphere is, the less heat will be produced therein by the sun, and vice versa. Hence we observe, that in the warmest countries, the tops of mountains are always covered with snow. Whoever will carry a thermometer on a very warm day to the top of a high steeple, will find that the mercury immediately falls several degrees, and rises again as he descends. From this it is obvious, that nothing is wanting in the midst of summer to render the country agreeably cool, but a proper mixture of the cold air which is above, with the warm air below. This would be effected by any cause that might increase our summer winds. For though the simple motion of the air does not by any means produce cold, yet moderate blasts will naturally introduce a colder atmosphere, especially when they pass over hills, or any unequal surface, by which the equilibrium of the atmosphere is destroyed, the cold air always tending towards the surface. Hence a summer's gulf is generally attended by a sudden change in the temperature of the air. Tall timber greatly impedes the circulation of the air, for it retards the motion of that part which is near the surface, and which, from its density and situation, being most heated, becomes the general origin of such agitations as take place in the upper regions. We shall often find it extremely sultry and warm in a small field, surrounded by tall woods, when no such inconveniency is perceived on an extensive clear plain in the neighbourhood. From these particulars, we may conclude, that when

this country shall be diversified, as it must be in a series of years, by vast tracts of clear land, intersected here and there by great ridges of uncultivated mountains, a much greater degree of heat being reflected by the plains than from the neighbouring mountains, and an easy circulation of air produced on the plains, our land winds in the summer, to say nothing of those which come from the sea, or from the lakes, must certainly be much fresher and more frequent than they now are, and consequently our summer heats be more temperate.

A considerable change in the temperature of our seasons may doubtless effect a change in the produce of our lands. Temperate seasons must be friendly to meadows and pasturage, provided we continue to get regular supplies of rain; but of this, there is some reason to doubt, unless our mountains, with which this country happily abounds, should befriend us greatly. The decrease of our frosts and snows in winter, must for many years prove injurious to our wheat and winter's grain. The vicissitudes of freezing and thawing have already become so frequent, that it is high time for the farmer to provide some remedy, whereby he may prevent his wheat from being thrown out in the winter season.

A considerable change in the temperature of our seasons, may one day oblige the tobacco planter to migrate towards the Carolinas and Florida, which will be the natural retreat of that plant, when the seasons admonish the Virginian to cultivate wheat and Indian corn. The tender vine, which would now be destroyed by our winter's frost, in a few years shall supply the North American with every species of wine. Posterity will doubtless transplant the several odoriferous, aromatic, and medical plants of the eastern countries, which must flourish in one or another part of North America, where they will find a climate and soil favourable to their growth, as that of their native country.

Every friend to humanity must rejoice more in the pleasing prospect of the advantages we may gain in point of health, from the cultivation of this country, than from all the additional luxuries we may enjoy, though

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both the Indies were brought to our doors. The salutary effects which have resulted from cleansing and paving the streets of Philadelphia, are obvious to every inhabitant. For causes somewhat similar to these, the general improvement of the colonies has already produced very desirable effects. While the face of this country was clad with woods, and every valley afforded a swamp or stagnant marsh, by a copious perspiration through the leaves of trees or plants, and a general exhalation from the surface of ponds and marthes, the air was constantly charged with a gross putrescent fluid. Hence a series of irregular, nervous, bilious, remitting and intermitting fevers, which for many years have maintained a fatal reign through many parts of this country, but are now evidently on the decline. Pleuritic and other inflammatory fevers, with the several diseases of cold seasons, are also observed to remit their violence, as our winters grow more temperate.

Since the cultivation of the colonies, and the consequent change of climate, has such effects on the diseases of the human body, and must continue to produce such remarkable changes in their appearance, it is certainly the duty of every physician, to be careful to trace the history of every disease, observe the several changes they undergo, and mark, with a jealous attention, the rise of every new disease, which may appear on the decline of others, that so he may be enabled to bring effectual and seasonable relief to such persons, as may be committed to his care.



Positions to be examined.

1. **A**LL food or subsistence for mankind arises from the earth or waters.

2. Necessaries of life that are not foods, and all other conveniences, have their value estimated by the proportion of food consumed while we are employed in procuring them.

3. A small people with a large territory, may subsist on the productions of nature, with no other labour than that of gathering the vegetables and catching the animals.

4. A large people with a small territory, find these insufficient, and to

subsist, must labour the earth, to make it produce greater quantities of vegetable food, suitable for the nourishment of men, and of the animals they intend to eat.

5. From this labour arises a great increase of vegetable and animal food, and of materials for clothing, as flax, wool, silk, &c. The superfluity of these is wealth. With this wealth we pay for the labour employed in building our houses, cities, &c. which are therefore only subsistence thus metamorphosed.

6. Manufactures are only another shape into which so much provisions and subsistence are turned, as were equal in value to the manufactures produced. This appears from hence, that the manufacturer does not, in fact, obtain from the employer, for his labour, more than a mere subsistence, including raiment, fuel, and shelter; all which derive their value from the provisions consumed in procuring them.

7. The produce of the earth, thus converted into manufactures, may be more easily carried to distant markets than before such conversion.

8. Fair commerce is, where equal values are exchanged for equal, the expence of transport included. Thus, if it costs A in England as much labour and charge to raise a bushel of wheat, as it cost B in France to produce four gallons of wine, then are four gallons of wine the fair exchange for a bushel of wheat, A and B meeting at half distance with their commodities to make the exchange. The advantage of this fair commerce is, that each party increases the number of his enjoyments, having, instead of wheat alone, or wine alone, the use of both wheat and wine.

9. Where the labour and expence of producing both commodities are known to both parties, bargains will generally be fair and equal. Where they are known to one party only, bargains will often be unequal, knowledge taking its advantage of ignorance.

10. Thus he that carries 1000 bushels of wheat abroad to sell, may not probably obtain so great a profit thereon, as if he had first turned the wheat into manufactures, by subsisting therewith the workmen while producing those manufactures, since there are

many expediting and facilitating methods of working, not generally known; and strangers to the manufactures, though they know pretty well the expense of raising wheat, are unacquainted with those short methods of working, and thence being apt to suppose more labour employed in the manufactures than there really is, are more easily imposed on in their value, and induced to allow more for them than they are honestly worth.

11. Thus the advantage of having manufactures in a country, does not consist, as is commonly supposed, in their highly advancing the value of rough materials, of which they are formed; since, though six pennyworth of flax may be worth twenty shillings when worked into lace, yet the very cause of its being worth twenty shillings, is, that, besides the flax, it has cost nineteen shillings and six pence in subsistence to the manufacturer. But the advantage of manufactures is, that under their shape provisions may be more easily carried to a foreign market; and by their means our traders may more easily cheat strangers. Few, where it is not made, are judges of the value of lace. The importer may demand forty, and perhaps get thirty shillings for that which cost him but twenty.

12. Finally there seem to be but three ways for a nation to acquire wealth. The first is by war, as the Romans did, in plundering their conquered neighbours. This is robbery.—The second by commerce, which is generally cheating.—The third by agriculture, the only honest way; wherein man receives a real increase of the seed thrown into the ground, in a kind of continual miracle wrought by the hand of God in his favour, as reward for his innocent life and his virtuous industry.

April 4, 1769. B. FRANKLIN.

Account of a white negro. By James Parsons, M. D.

THE father and mother of this boy were brought down above three hundred miles from an inland country to the Gold Coast in Africa, and were brought, among great number of others, and put on board a ship bound to Virginia; where they arrived in the year 1755.

They became the property of colonel Benjamin Chambers, of the Falling Springs, in Cumberland county, in Pennsylvania; and are now employed upon an estate in Virginia, which the colonel possesses in right of his lady, whom he married in that province, although he lives with his family in Pennsylvania, where he sold the boy to his present master; in proof of which fact I saw the bill of sale that passed between the colonel and him.

The father and mother of this child are perfectly black, and were both very young when landed; the woman not being above sixteen years old, and her husband not more than six years older; and when they landed, being asked how far she was gone with-child? answered, so as to be understood to mean, that she was with-child something more than six moons, and that this was her first pregnancy. They also declared, that they never saw a white person before they came to the shore where Europeans were employed in buying black slaves.

The present owner of this boy is mr. James-Hill-Clark, who says that while he was in England lately, he received a letter from his lady, in which was some of the wool of a white negro child's head, by way of curiosity; and when I mentioned it to mr. Clark, he assured me that this very boy was shewed in Pennsylvania as a great rarity; and that, to his knowledge, the wool sent in the letter was taken from this child's head. He was born about six or seven weeks after his parents landed in Virginia, in the year 1755; and was purchased by mr. Hill-Clark of colonel Chambers in 1764, so that he appears not to be quite ten years old; and his mother has had two children since, who are both as black as the parents.

January 30, 1765.

—♦♦♦♦♦—
Extracts from "Observations on a variety of subjects, literary, moral, and religious." By the rev. dr. Duche.

LETTER I.

Description of Philadelphia—its excellent police—public institutions—account of the college.

I AM now sitting at a window, that overlooks the majestic Delaware compared with which our Ills are

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Cherwell, though immortalized in song, would appear but little babbling brooks. The woods along the opposite shore of New Jersey are clothed in their brightest verdure, and afford a pleasing rest and refreshment to the eye, after it hath glanced across the watry mirror. Whilst I am writing this, three topsail vessels, wafted along by a gentle southern breeze, are passing by my window. The voice of industry perpetually resounds along the shore; and every wharf within my view is surrounded with groves of masts, and heaped with commodities of every kind, from almost every quarter of the globe.

I cannot behold this lively active scene, without lamenting, that the streams of commerce should ever be checked in their course, or directed to wander in other channels, than those which they now possess.

Dean Prideaux, in his connexion of the old and new testament, speaks of William Penn's having laid out his new city after the plan of Babylon. Perhaps it might be difficult at this time to ascertain, what this plan was. Be this as it may, I am not so well versed in antiquity as to be able to pronounce, whether there is the least resemblance or not betwixt Babylon and Philadelphia. Of this, however, you may be certain that no city could be laid out with more beauty and regularity than Philadelphia. Its streets cross each other at right angles: those which run from north to south being parallel to each other, as well as those from east to west. Notwithstanding the vast progress that has been already made, a considerable time must elapse before the whole plan is executed. The buildings from north to south, along the bank of the Delaware, including the suburbs, now extend near two miles, and those from east to west, about half a mile from the river. But, according to the original plan, they are to extend as far, nay farther, I believe, than the beautiful river Schuylkill, which runs about two miles west of Delaware.

The principal street, which is an hundred feet wide, would have a noble appearance, were it not for an ill-contrived court-house, and a long range of shambles, which they have

erected in the very middle of it. This may, indeed, be very convenient for the inhabitants, and, on their market-days, exhibits such a scene of plenty, as is scarcely to be equalled by any single market in Europe. But I am apt to think, that moveable stalls, contrived so as to afford shelter from the weather, would have answered the purpose full as well, and then the avenue might have been left entirely open. The streets are all well paved in the middle for carriages, and there is a foot-path of hard bricks on each side next the houses. The houses in general are plain, but not elegant, for the most part built upon the same plan, a few excepted, which are finished with some taste, and neatly decorated within. The streets are well lighted by lamps, placed at proper distances; and watchmen and scavengers* are constantly employed for security and cleanliness.

Almost every sect in Christendom have here found an happy asylum; and such is the catholic spirit that prevails, that I am told, they have frequently and cheerfully assisted each other in erecting their several places of worship. These places too generally partake of the plainness and neatness of their dwelling houses, being seldom enriched by any costly ornaments. Here are three churches that use the liturgy and ceremonies of our church of England; but only two of them are under any episcopal jurisdiction.† Christ-church has by far the most venerable appearance of any building in this city; and the whole architecture, including an elegant steeple (which is furnished with a complete ring of bells) would not disgrace one of the finest streets in Westminster. The eastern front is particularly well designed and executed; but its beauty is in a great measure lost, by its being set too near the street, instead of being placed, as it ought to have been, forty or fifty feet back.

NOTE.

* The author was misinformed in this article—there were no scavengers in Philadelphia then.

† After the first publication of these letters, the bishop of London, at the earnest request of the vestry-men and congregation of St. Paul's church, ordained and licensed their minister.

The state-house, as it is called, is a large plain building, two stories high—the lower story is divided into two large rooms, in one of which the provincial assembly meet, and in the other the supreme court of judicature is held—the upper story consists of a long gallery which is generally used for public entertainments, and two rooms adjoining it, one of which is appropriated for the governor and his council; the other, I believe, is yet unoccupied. In one of the wings, which join the main building, by means of a brick arcade, is deposited a valuable collection of books, belonging to a number of the citizens, who are incorporated by the name of the library company of Philadelphia. You would be astonished, at the general taste for books, which prevails among all orders and ranks of people in this city. The librarian assured me, that for one person of distinction and fortune, there were twenty tradesmen that frequented this library.

Behind and adjoining to the state-house, was some time since erected a tower, of such miserable architecture, that the legislature have wisely determined to let it go to decay (the upper part being entirely of wood) that it may hereafter be built upon a new and more elegant construction. Mr. Franklin, the late speaker of the assembly, with whom I have several times conversed, informed me, that the plot of ground, on which the state-house stands, and which is one of the squares of the city, is to be planted with trees, and divided into walks, for the recreation of the citizens. I could not help observing to him, that it would be a considerable improvement of their plan, if the legislature could purchase another square, which lies to the south of this, and apply it to the same salutary purpose; as otherwise, their walks must be very contracted, unless they make them of a circular or serpentine form.

The internal police of this city is extremely well regulated. You seldom hear of any such mobs or riots, as, I am told, are frequent among their northern neighbours. The poor are amply provided for, and lodged and boarded in a very large and commodious building, to which they have given the name of the house of em-

ployment; because all such as are able to work, are here employed, in the different trades or manufactures to which they were brought up. This building likewise stands upon one of the city squares, and, when completed, will form a quadrangle, as large, and of much the same appearance, as some of our colleges. In passing through the apartments, I observed and pointed out to one of the managers, who was so obliging as to accompany me, an inconvenience, which, he assured me, would be rectified, as soon as their funds would admit of it, viz. The want of a few little private rooms, for the better accommodation of such poor, as have formerly lived in good circumstances, and whose misery must needs be considerably heightened by their being obliged to board and lodge in the same common and open apartment, with the vilest of their species.

For the sick and lunatic an hospital has been erected, by private contributions, under the particular countenance and encouragement of the legislature. The building is still unfinished. I walked round it—but did not choose to venture into this retreat of human woe, as I had formerly suffered much from a visit to bedlam.

Whilst I was at breakfast one day last week with dr. M——, whom I had seen at Oxford some years ago, he received a card to attend a public commencement at the college the next day. As I expressed a desire of accompanying him there, if it should not be inconvenient, he very politely called upon me in the morning, and took me into the apparatus-room, where the trustees or governors of the college were met. There is no place or scene, that I have visited, since my arrival in America, at which I more ardently wished for your presence, than this. I accompanied the procession of trustees and professors into their public hall. The provost opened the commencement with two or three collects of our liturgy, well chosen and adapted to the occasion, together with an excellent prayer of his own composition. The exercises were some in English, and some in Latin, consisting of forensic and syllogistic disputations, and several little essays in the declamatory

way, which the young gentlemen, for the most part, delivered with propriety of pronunciation and action; though a gentleman who sat next to me, declared, that the present candidates were by no means equal to many who had received the honours of this seminary. Their pronunciation of the Latin, indeed, seemed to be a little defective; and yet they have an excellent pattern in the gentleman who presided during the acts, who spoke with great distinctness, and paid due regard to the quantity and emphasis.

The peculiar attention that is given in this seminary to the English language, is worthy of being imitated by our universities and academies at home. They have a professor here, whose sole business is to teach boys their native tongue grammatically, and instruct them in the method of reading and pronouncing it with propriety. For this purpose, he is frequently exercising them in little speeches, extracted from plays, parliamentary debates, Roman history, poems, sermons, &c. and I am told, that the seminary owes much of its present reputation to this part of its plan.

The professor of languages has the Latin and Greek school in excellent order, both with respect to instruction and discipline; and he assured me, that he seldom had less than eighty or ninety boys under his care. The higher classics are read in the philosophical schools, under the direction of the provost and vice-provost, who give lectures in geography, mathematics, logic, rhetoric, natural and moral philosophy.

Upon the college has lately been engrafted a medical school, with professors in all the branches necessary to complete a medical education. So that they have now annually a course of lectures in anatomy, the theory and practice of physic, botany, materia medica, and chemistry. Pupils from all parts of the continent, I am told, have crowded to Philadelphia since this school was opened, as the advantages here are thought to be almost equal to those in Europe. Nothing now seems to be wanting to render this seminary an university in the largest sense of the word, but two more professorships, one in divinity, and the other in civil and municipal

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law. The first of these, however, is supplied by the provost himself, who reads a course of divinity lectures, when any of his pupils declare themselves candidates for the ministry.

One thing I must not omit, which cannot fail of giving pleasure to a benevolent heart; and that is, that to this college is annexed a charitable school, in which youth of both sexes are instructed in all the necessary parts of a common English education. A merchant of my acquaintance assured me, that he knew several instances of the happy effects of this charity; and among the rest, that the young man, to whom he intrusted the chief part of his business, had received his education wholly at this school.

The situation of Philadelphia, in the very centre of the British colonies, the manners of its inhabitants, the benevolent and catholic plan of this seminary, which exceeds any thing I ever meet with at home or abroad, together with the moderate expense of a learned education here, are circumstances, which, I am persuaded, must give this college the preference to any that are, or may be erected in North America; and I doubt not, but that the inhabitants of the West-India islands, many of whom have been well educated, and have an high taste for literature, did they once make the experiment, would soon be induced by the success to prefer an American to an English education, at least for the earlier season of their children's lives. For my part, I must confess, in spite of all my prejudices in favour of our beloved Oxford, that, had I a son, I should certainly choose to let him go through a course of education at Philadelphia college, before I ventured to send him to that university. For you well know, that what we principally expect from spending a few years at Oxford or Cambridge, are, the opportunities we have there of conversing with men of genius, and forming such useful and agreeable connections, as may contribute not a little to our future happiness in life.

The very ingenious dr. Franklin, who has been celebrated all over Europe for his discoveries in electricity, was among the first promoters of this institution; and I recollect, a few days since, to have heard a gentleman

of this city, who is a friend to literature, and no enemy to dr. Franklin, expresses an ardent wish, that he would relinquish his political employments, and once more resume the philosophical chair; adding, that the calm regions of philosophy would, in his opinion, agree much better with the doctor's genius and disposition, than the stormy element of politics. Certain it is, that his fellow-citizens acknowledge themselves much indebted to him for many of the excellent institutions, that do honour to their city and province. Nor are they without hopes, that he will yet return to his native country, and employ the remainder of his days in assisting them to complete the several plans, for the success of which he once appeared to be so much in earnest.

The college, however, is at present in good hands. Gentlemen of the first distinction for learning and fortune are among its trustees. The provost is well known for his literary character and excellent compositions, both in Europe and America. He was particularly patronized by the late good and learned archbishop of Canterbury, whose memory you revere; and by his influence, obtained his majesty's brief for a collection throughout England for the joint benefit of this seminary, and that of New York. You, I remember, were a contributor, and expressed your high approbation of the liberal and generous plan, on which it was founded. This plan is most religiously adhered to; and though among nine professors, there are but three of the church of England, yet this is not owing to any neglect or disrespect towards the members of our communion, but because no more than these three have hitherto presented themselves as candidates for any professorship; and the trustees never enquire into the religious profession, (provided it be protestant) but solely into the literary merit and moral character of those that offer. The vice-provost is one of the eldest and most respectable ministers of the presbyterian denomination; and has the honour of being among the first that introduced science into this heretofore untutored wilderness.

I could not help expressing my

surprise, in a conversation I had some time since with mr. Galloway (an eminent and worthy lawyer in this city, and now speaker of the house of assembly) that the legislature should never have taken this seminary under their protection. The hospital and house of employment, I observed, had been favoured with their countenance. And, as the cultivation of the human mind is an object of much higher importance, than the care of the body; and the advantages derived from this college to the city and province, must needs be very considerable, I could not but think it very justly entitled to some share of their liberality. I do not recollect this gentleman's answer; but I make no doubt, upon a proper application, that his influence and interest would be cheerfully exerted in that honourable house, to obtain an handsome endowment for this institution.

I have been the more minute and circumstantial in my account of the college, as I know you are particularly interested in the progress of literature; and I am happy in an opportunity of affording you a little entertainment, that will be agreeable to your taste. I am, &c.

T. CASPIPINA.

Philadelphia, July 4th, 1771.

(To be continued.)



Thoughts on an economical association, and a national dress for Americans.

UPON perusing the Museum for August last, a piece under the signature of "A well-meaning plain citizen" engaged my attention. The object which the author had in view, appeared to me, at first sight, to have some claim upon the public attention, and the more I considered the matter, the more fully I was convinced of its meriting the encouragement of every citizen of these united states. It contained a recommendation to establish amongst us an economical association, and called upon the rich and affluent to set an example so worthy of imitation to their poorer neighbours.

Happy would it have been for us, had it been possible to have put a stop to the inroads made upon the morals of the people, during the late war, by

the same articles which established a cessation of hostilities in this country, and paved the way to an honourable peace. But unfortunately for mankind, it requires a much longer time to destroy the baneful effects of vicious examples, and bad habits when once introduced, than we are generally aware of. We cannot, therefore, be too frequently excited to consider the rank our opposition to the tyranny with which we were threatened, has given us amongst nations, nor too often urged to reflect upon the duties incumbent upon us from the station allotted us. A proper attention to these circumstances cannot fail of pointing out to us a suitable conduct, and at the same time of recommending to us what are justly considered the principal ornaments of republics, simplicity and honesty.

It was not to be wondered at, that the examples, daily exhibited to us, of luxury and dissipation, by the officers of foreign troops, should make some impression: and when a similarity of conduct obtained amongst our allies, it was not extraordinary, that we should appear anxious to imitate them. An army, generally speaking, is composed of the dregs of mankind, and in it are to be found the seeds of every vice—Soldiers for life are for the most part debauched and dissolute, and require the utmost attention of their officers to be kept in due subordination. Although the utmost possible order prevailed among the troops of our allies, yet they taught us dissipation, and set us examples of luxury, which, as republicans, we should have avoided. What was innocent and excusable in the subjects of a monarch, would become criminal and dangerous in the citizens of a republic. A refinement of manners, carried to an extreme, approaches very near to vice, and in order to avoid being seduced from virtuous habits, the imitation of foreign manners and customs, particularly when they militate against the principles of our constitution, should be carefully guarded against.

We cannot be said to have any national dress peculiar to ourselves; and from this circumstance arises, in a great measure, our foreign commercial debt. Every stranger, who comes amongst us, thinks himself en-

titled to set a fashion, and, however ridiculous it may be, if he has had the good fortune to have seen a little of genteel life, he is gratified by becoming the object of a temporary imitation. This unfortunate propensity in Americans, to imitate whatever is European, makes our capitals so many Monmouth-streets—the receptacles of the cast clothes of other nations. It is time for us to lay aside the leading strings to which we have been so long accustomed, and, with the commencement of a new era, in the politics of our country, to assert that right which every independent nation claims and exercises within its own boundaries—the right of possessing customs and manners peculiar to itself. Were we once to take up the resolution of exercising this right, we should find all foreigners who wished to be well received amongst us, ready to conform to our regulations. We should cease to be any longer the sport of foreign nations, and relieve ourselves from the tax we are constantly paying to the tailors and milliners of other countries.

It is some time since, I recollect to have heard a lady of fashion and fortune in this city (whose good sense and cultivated understanding will ever stamp a value upon her opinions) express her surprise, that we had contented ourselves with remaining the servile copyers of British fashions, without once attempting to exercise a right which every country is acknowledged to possess—the right of establishing a dress suited to its rank and conformable to its circumstances. This idea so perfectly coincided with my way of thinking, that I could not but join her in wishing, that that part of the community whose situation in life gave them the lead in these affairs, would take some steps to render their country so essential a service. The difficulties they would have to encounter, would be but few, and surely no time could be more favourable to it than the present. The scarcity of money, and the necessity of discharging debts of long standing, would make their fellow citizens hasten to adopt modes calculated to lessen their wants, and relieve their present distresses.

The fair sex, I believe, in every

part of the world are the arbiters of dress—upon them, therefore, much will depend, with respect to introducing fashions, consistent with republican manners. The species of dress, which they might adopt for themselves, would influence much the dress of the gentlemen, and were we to be countenanced by them in proportion as we appeared to estimate our character, in laying aside effeminate and useless articles, and consuming as much as possible, the productions and manufactures of our own country, we should, I am convinced, become more respectable citizens and more worthy members of society. It might, probably, be attended with some advantage, to call a convention of the ladies, for the express purpose of devising a mode of dress, suited to our circumstances, and recommending such household regulations as should appear to them likely to promote frugality, and establish temperance. With this intention, I could wish them to guard against inhospitality, and to avoid, as much as possible, the discouraging that social intercourse with one another, which is one of the blessings of civil life—but at the same time, I should have no doubt of the propriety of their resolving against sumptuous entertainments by individuals, as well as that barbarous mode of wasting time, by dedicating six or eight hours to what is by some styled the pleasures of the table. If the custom should ever prevail, of the guests leaving the table when the lady of the house thought proper to withdraw, our time would be spent much more agreeably in rational conversation, and excesses, with their consequences, be in a great degree avoided. If the sentiments contained in this essay should meet with the approbation of your readers, they may probably be productive of conduct friendly to

Federal Measures.

Philadelphia, Oct. 9, 1788.

On the newspaper scurrility that awaits public officers in America.

TO judge from the publications we are constantly presented with, in our newspapers, no misfortune, it would appear, was so much to be deprecated, as that of being elected to any public office in this country; for,

what scenes of obloquy, of defamation, and indignity, must not a man wade through, on his passage to such eminence of station, while the emoluments of it are comparatively insignificant? It is therefore, I suppose, to the power of ambition, to the love of fame, or to the dictates of an uncommon degree of patriotism, that we must ascribe any man's acceptance of such stations—obscured as is their lustre, and invalidated as is their usefulness, by the envenomed arrows of slander. But if the public officer is generally thus forced, as it were, to pass a fiery ordeal to obtain his wished-for promotion, what shall we say of the danger of any man who consents to open an account with the public? Here he is in the very heat of the battle, and offered, quite defenceless, to the dark and insidious designs of the literary assassin; millions are immediately summoned to bear down the accountant; unheard-of peculation ascribed to him: the successes of private life immediately become the source of public calamity; the country, men, women, and children, are all set in array, taught to believe that their taxes will be lessened, and their burdens removed, if only the accountant can be brought to the imaginary adjustment: and thus, possibly, is the peace of a man's life, the blossoms of his fame, and the possessions of his industry, all set at hazard, by the misery of ever having had an account with his country. Unhappy people, who are in such a case: wanting the services of honest and faithful administrations, and yet terrifying all men, who have any value for themselves, from accepting the trust.

There is a great singularity in the monied transactions of this country, possibly equalled in no other. If a man has an open account with it, he is immediately supposed its defaulter and debtor. If it proves, on the settlement, that he is indeed indebted, then all the engines of political torture are at work to torment and destroy him; no indulgence of time to pay; no remaining possessed of credit to accumulate the means of discharging his obligations; but the man has a mark set upon him, like Cain, that he may be a vagabond over all the earth, and

his hand may be turned against every man, and every man's hand against him. Reverse the picture, and suppose the public in debt, a wretched certificate, of imaginary worth, is all the payment—a payment he is not allowed to set off against any duties or debts he owes; but, clothed with this empty pageant of riches, he is left to sink into the pit of misery and ruin.

I appeal to every man, whether this is not a true delineation of facts; and whether, where there is one who may be possessed of public treasure, there are not to be seen thousands of miserable spectacles—venerable it is true, but wretched, in the consciousness of an ill-placed confidence. In some states, you will see them pass laws to compel the payment of public debts, in a manner the most rigorous; while, at the same time, their intolant laws, violating the bonds of public security and faith, prevent the recovery of private debts: as if it were possible for a man to pay the community at large, when, individually, they are all exonerated from performing their contracts with him.

Who, that reflects on these things, but approaches the portals of public life with fear and trembling? We have, indeed, been told, a new order of things is to arise in our political hemisphere; but, I fear, it is more to be hoped for than expected. Already those who are fixed upon to fill its dignities, share the fate of their predecessors in abuse; who can say if they will equal them in success? Oh, Washington! I see thee quit thy Sabine fields, thy rural concerns, with fear, to immerge once more—not, indeed, into fields of military glory, but—into the thorn-covered path of political administration. None of thy votaries will wish thy patriotic ardour more success than I shall; but none is more afraid, that the laurels thou hast so deservedly acquired in war, may be at least assailed, if not obscured, in peace. The good and virtuous, I know, will oppose it; but their voice, alas! is but seldom heard, in the uproar of political dissension, and the war and virulence of contending factions. Yet, the country cannot do without thee; therefore accept: may heaven, that sees, preserve and recompense thy disinterested virtue!

Nov. 1788.

A Spectator.

Remarks on the alterations which have taken place in the earth.

THAT great alterations have taken place in the earth, since its first formation, is a truth that has long been observed and demonstrated by the philosopher. That every shore of the sea and lakes, unless composed of solid rock, has been found, where observation has been made, to make encroachment upon the water; so that in many places, it appears, with convincing evidence, that very large extent of habitable land was once covered by the ocean. I may add—it is a fact, which addresses itself to general observation, that rivulets universally, and all rivers small enough for sensible notice of variation, are continually decreasing their quantity of water.

These observations, with others I shall mention, will, I think, warrant the hypothesis, that the earth is continually increasing, and water decreasing.

I admit the received opinion of philosophers, that the primogenial particles of all bodies are alike, and that different modification alone, constitutes the diversity of matter. Upon these principles, water, differently modified, may become earth; and it is my opinion it has a constant tendency to such modification. My reasons are—it has been found by experiment, that all vegetation is effected solely by air and water, the earth being only a vehicle to convey and contain the water around the imbibing vessels of the root. A tree thus produced, when by putrefaction it has discharged its fixed air, or by the violence of fire has repelled it—in the one case, leaves a large quantity of real earth, and in the other of ashes, which, when the salts are extracted, is a real *caput mortuum*, incapable of further change. This is, without exception, the case of all vegetation, and affords the most palpable proof of water transmuted to real earth. But the confirmation of my hypothesis rests not alone on vegetation; the most solid bodies are certainly, many of them the production of water—the pearl, the crystal, and the diamond, are of this description, neither of which, by any chemical process, can be reduced back to water—scarce any body is less capable, than the last, of alteration. I have my-

self seen a stone of a conic figure in a gentleman's museum, which appeared to me from its colour, consistency and solidity, to be real marble—this stone, I was told, was taken from the bottom of a cave, and formed by the dropping of water from its arch—when first found, its apex was soft and easily cut with a pen-knife: the marks of its being thus cut, I saw; though at the time of my seeing it, the apex was as hard as the rest of the mass.

The same gentleman shewed me a large stone, very hard and of equal texture, found near the water, which being, by accident, broken into two nearly equal parts, there was discovered near its centre an entire muscle-shell—an evidence to me that the stone was formed around the shell from the water. That immoveable rocks are continually augmenting, every one who will give himself the trouble to examine, will, I doubt not, be convinced. That one may be satisfied this augmentation is from water alone, let a rock be chosen upon the top of a mountain, at as great a distance as possible from any earth, and where the wind may have scope to blow off whatever dust might otherwise be lodged upon it. Such a rock will be found to be composed, near its surface, of three distinct strata; in some a fourth may be discovered. The first only moss; the second, earth capable of being moved by the finger nail; the third, solid, and of the same consistency with the body of the rock, but of a different colour. These things give strong evidence, that water is constantly changing into earth and solid bodies incapable of being reduced again to water; and of consequence, that earth is increasing and water decreasing.

Should it be supposed that cutting the trees from the low grounds effects the lessening of springs and rivulets only by exhalation; I observe, that exhalation does not change the form, much less, annihilate water; it only changes its situation; but this lessening is universal wherever land is cleared, and may indeed be in part, not chiefly, effected by exhalation—it is chiefly effected by the rapid growth and decay of vegetation, which in this manner is reduced.

Hartford, Dec. 1788. J. L.

Historical memoirs, relating to the practice of inoculation for the small pox, in the British American provinces, particularly in New England. By Benjamin Gale, A. M. Written in Massachusetts, A. D. 1764.

THE small pox, by the vigilant execution of the laws subsisting in the several New England colonies, hath never generally prevailed among the inhabitants, excepting in Boston, the capital town, in the province of Massachusetts Bay, where it has been epidemical, A. D. 1649, 1666, 1678, 1689, 1702, 1721, 1730, 1752, and at this present time, 1764, and where the success attending inoculation, after much opposition, and endeavours used to bring the same into disrepute, became incontestably evident.

In the provinces of New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, the like precautions have not been taken, and the small pox has prevailed in those provinces, but more especially in the capital towns, and places adjacent, once in about six or seven years, where inoculation hath been practised with surprising success, to the preservation of the lives of many.

A. D. 1702, the inhabitants of the town of Boston were 6750 souls, at this time there died of the whites 300. A. D. 1721, the number of the inhabitants was 10,567, besides those moved out to avoid the disease; the discombents were 5,989, whereof 844 died, i. e. nearly one in seven. At this time, in and about Boston, 286 were inoculated, whereof 6 died, i. e. about 1 in 48. This was the beginning of inoculation in New England, soon after it was first practised in London. A. D. 1730, the discombents were estimated at 4000, whereof about 500 died; of nearly 400 inoculated, 12 died, i. e. 1 of 33.

A. D. 1752, there was an exact account taken, by order of the magistrates of the town of Boston, and rendered upon oath (in order to remove the prejudices and objections made against inoculation) of all who had the small pox, either in the natural way or by inoculation, and of the precise number of those who died of the small pox in either way; by which account it appears that the number of those who had the distemper in the

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natural way, including blacks, amounted to 5,544, of which number died, including blacks, 514; the whole number inoculated, including blacks, was 2,113, of which died, including blacks, 30. At this time, all present had the small pox, except about 174; the total of residents (including 1,544 negroes) being 15,734; those who fled from the small pox estimated at 1,800. Hitherto mercury had not been made use of in inoculation in Boston.

A. D. 1764, at this present writing, the small pox is prevalent in the town of Boston: by the last accounts 3000 had recovered from inoculation, in the new method, by the use of mercury, and 5 only had died, viz. children under 5 years; so that it appears, that death without inoculation is 1 in 7 or 8; by inoculation without mercury, 1 in 80 or 100; by inoculation with mercury, 1 in 800 or 1000.

The use of mercury, in the small pox, was first hinted by the learned Boerhaave, who died in 1738; this intimation was improved, and mercury introduced into practice, by physicians, in the English American colonies, about 1743.

Several American physicians claim the second glory to Boerhaave. Dr. Thomas, of Virginia, and dr. Muri-son, of Long Island, in the province of New York, may justly have merited that honour, who have successfully practised the use of mercury, perhaps before any other, either in Europe or America.

During the late war, the small pox was brought into divers towns, in this and the other colonies, by the return of our soldiers (employed in the pay of the New England colonies) for winter quarters, and by seamen employed in our navigation to the British islands in the West Indies, where the small pox was universally prevalent, which produced an universal concern among the inhabitants, lest the same should become general, and spread through this and the other colonies in New England. Whereupon application was made to the legislature of this colony, for liberty to inoculate for the small pox, by the officers of our provincial troops and others, which was accordingly granted; as likewise that hospitals for that purpose might be erected, in such towns of the co-

lony as should see cause to permit the same. However, instead of regulating such hospitals as should be erected for that purpose, by well adapted laws, to prevent any communication with these hospitals from abroad, or the subjects of inoculation leaving the same, without license from the attending physician, unhappily that matter was left to be regulated at the discretion of the overseers of the several towns where inoculation should be practised, which required the strictest laws, enforced by severe penalties, without which it would be impossible for the attending physician to restrain his patients, when grown impatient with confinement and a reclusive life.

From this defect, some persons left the hospitals, not being duly cleansed, and unhappily communicated the small pox to divers persons, of which some died; whereupon the law permitting inoculation was repealed, notwithstanding three hospitals had been erected in this colony, at no inconsiderable expense, and no further attempts were made, to regulate the practice of inoculation, by measures well adapted for that purpose.

Whereupon persons engaged in trade, seamen, and youth, living in sea-port towns, and places more exposed to frequent invasions of the small-pox, resorted in great numbers to New York, in order to obtain inoculation. On this emigration of the inhabitants, and partly to prevent, but principally to secure against, the spreading of the contagion in the colony, the assembly prohibited inoculation within the limits of this colony, on very severe penalties; and in case people went into any other government to obtain it, ordered them not to return again to the colony, without first having remained out at least twenty days after leaving the hospital, or place of infection, upon the penalty of twenty pounds; and if after remaining out of the colony twenty days, they should unfortunately happen, either by their clothes or otherways, to communicate the infection, they were made liable to pay, to the party injured, treble damages, and costs of suit. Thus the practice of inoculation for the small-pox stands wholly interdicted within the colony, and laid under such disadvantages and

discouragements, when persons go abroad to procure it, that we are in a great measure deprived of the only method, ever discovered to the world, to escape the hazards attending that disease, which has made such havock of the human species.

[To be continued.]

*Letter on the climate of Georgia;
from Dr. John Brickel, of Savannah,
to a gentleman in Newhaven,
Connecticut.*

Savannah, Feb. 18, 1787.

SIR,

THE rev. Mr. Morfe has handed me a letter of yours of November 8, containing a number of queries, to which I will give the best answers in my power;—and, first, with respect to consumption.

Your climate is productive of the causes of this complaint, from the following considerations: a long continuation of cold atmosphere, which diverts perspiration from the skin through the lungs; increases the momentum of the blood, and diminishes the diameter of the vessels. To these effects the operation of our climate is diametrically opposite; a long series of warm weather keeping up the discharge through the skin, and consequently diverting the fluids so much from the lungs; enlarging the diameters of the vessels, and abating the momentum of the circulating fluids.

In all mankind there is a perpetual evolution of putrid effluvium; in the torrid zone, this effluvium is principally discharged through the skin; in the frigid zone, it makes its exit principally through the lungs.

In your cold climate, therefore, a great proportion of this putrid matter must pass through the lungs, which, if they are already contaminated, must increase the putrescence, and exasperate the complaint. Add to this, that cold climates give a great appetite for animal food; whereas our long summers give a perpetual supply of acid or acedent productions, and diminish our appetite for animal putrescent nutriment.

The tendency therefore to pleurisy, haemoptoe, &c. in your climate, is obviated by ours: an incipient haemoptoe with you, is quickly removed

if the patient comes here; and instances are now in town, of people having their health entirely established, who came here in phthisis pulmonalis.

From hence you will infer, that the long and free discharge through the skin, in this country, exempts us from pleurisy, haemoptoe, &c. which is really the case: however, in very sudden changes to cold in winter, or by great imprudence, pleurisy is sometimes induced, even here.

One circumstance, in which our atmosphere might seem inferior to yours, is, the long continuation of vegetation in this country, which, under the influence of an almost vertical sun and moon, must produce, not only a great quantity of vapour, but also an abundant evolution of phlogiston, and putrid effluvium from animal and vegetable substances, thereby loading the atmosphere, and rendering it unfit for respiration; for air, saturated with these productions, cannot receive the putrid and phlogistic discharge from the human body, by which means that effluvium which enters the bronchiae from the lungs, must remain there to taint the lungs and mass of fluids, &c. But although a very great discharge from animal and vegetable substances does actually take place here at night, in the warm months, yet the sun, soon after its rising, elevates all vapours to so great a degree of altitude, that we are not affected by them in the day time: so that we breathe a good air while the sun is above the horizon.

Another circumstance is, that being in the verge of the torrid zone, our atmosphere is kept in motion by impressions from the trade winds, so that every portion of air which we breathe or infect, is carried off before another inspiration commences; and thus we are constantly respiring unsaturated air. Hence the use of ventilation by the fan or any other means, to phthisical patients, and to those in fevers or any putrid diseases, especially in calm weather.

It is generally found that dry situations near the sea are favourable to consumptives, the reason of which is, that a contaminated atmosphere, agitated with water, deposits its putrid contents in the water, and as the sur-

face of the ocean is in perpetual agitation, all the putrid vapours that fly over it must fall by degrees from the atmosphere, and attach themselves to the water, so that the winds from land carry off the putrid vapours, deposit them in the ocean, and return pure. Thus sea air, depurated by the electric attraction between water and putrid effluvia, must be extremely well fitted for respiration, if it did not, in its return to land, come loaded with moisture, which, however, is a change for the better, watry vapours being less noxious to consumptives, than putrid effluvia.

From all this we are led to a conclusion, established here by experience, that dry situations near the sea, and influenced by the trade winds, are most favourable in this complaint.

I have reason to believe that our back country affords many situations extremely good for consumptives (except in the three winter months, when the colds there are smart) for I am told, that although it contains a large quantity of fertile lands, yet there are some barren spots, producing excellent waters, and, from their barrenness and elevation, of course must have pure air. Here, however, it would be necessary to choose a place not too low, lest it should be deprived of a free circulation of air—nor too high, lest the clouds in their passage should come in contact with it, and the patient be exposed to moisture.

Generally, I think I am well authorized to affirm, that this country is extremely favourable to people in hæmoptoe, or phthisis pulmonalis.—That the back country is the most proper during warm weather, and the sea coast in winter, as the cold is never severe near the sea here, although it is pleasantly cooled by the sea breezes in summer.

I do not recollect a case of marasmus here in eight years practice.

Stages by land and water pass weekly between here and Charleston, South Carolina.

The decent expense of a gentleman here is seven shillings per day.

The sago is pulverized starch of sweet or Irish potatoes.

The spigelia grows here in great abundance, and is a good vermifuge; it is generally given in decoction, as—

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ter drying, though the powder is most efficacious:—from five to ten grains to a child four or five years old, before breakfast, and so in proportion. A small, deleterious vine, that grows entwined round some of the roots, is carefully picked out before exhibition; a few hours blindness, which sometimes follows the use of the spigelia, is attributed to the neglect of picking out this vine.

I have thus crowded together a mass of particulars—if they afford you any amusement, I will scribble for you at any time:—want of time prevents my arranging them methodically.

JOHN BRICKELL.

—o—o—o—o—o—

A sketch of the principal causes which impair the constitutions, and shorten the lives of people of fashion.
By Dr. William Carre. P. 174.

AFTER what has been advanced, it must appear evident that no remedies can have the desired effect, unless the person, under the influence of the recited causes, change his mode of living.—But that the proposition may not alarm and shock too much, I do not propose an impracticable task, which would certainly be ridiculous. I do not advise the man of fashion to lead the rambling and unsettled life of a savage, which is far from resembling those imaginary portraits drawn by romantic travellers, and which seem rather intended to humble the civilized being than to exalt the savage.—Neither do I mean to invite the polite to the life of a labourer, though I think the labourer is often happier in that life, than the man of fashion in his.—But two very enchanting classes of pleasure, those which have their source in imagination and sentimental exercises, are almost lost to the former, which powerfully concur to increase the pleasure of the man of fashion and improved understanding.—Therefore, the man of fashion, who can procure them, is less happy than the illiterate labourer, it is his own fault; for naturally he must have the advantage.—But he is generally so inconsiderate, and such a slave to prevailing customs, that he destroys the edifice of his pleasures, which he makes the foundation of his pains.

It is the great error of mankind, G g

that in the pursuit of happiness, they commonly seek for it in violent gratifications, in pleasures which are too intense in their degree to be of long duration, and of which the frequent repetitions always blunt the capacity of enjoyment. There is no lesson more useful than that which teaches them that the most rational, substantial, and permanent happiness is averse to all turbulent emotions; that it is serene and moderate in its nature; that its ingredients are neither costly in the acquisition, nor difficult in the attainment, but present themselves almost spontaneously to a well-ordered mind, and are open to every rank and condition of life, where indigence is excluded.

It may not be either necessary or convenient for the man of fashion, who lives in the centre of the city, to retire to the country for wholesome air—not knowing how to fill up his vacant life there, he would almost die of what are vulgarly termed vapours; but he ought to be informed, that some circulating air is absolutely necessary for him, and that he ought not to deprive himself of its benefit, by immuring himself in his parlour all day, or by going abroad in a close shut coach. He had better use his feet; if they are tender, the hardness of the pavement will not blister them, or if it should, let him mount a gentle and sure footed horse.—But if he dare not commit such a trespass upon the rules of fashion, he ought surely to suffer the windows of his carriage to be left open for the entrance of more air than just sufficient to preserve him from suffocation—let him not be displeased when his carriage passes over rough ground; the jolting will do him no harm—the functions of the body cannot be performed properly without its moving powers are assisted in their motion either by voluntary or artificial agents.—By his precaution to avoid every impression which is not perfectly agreeable to his sensations, he soon becomes a piteous spectacle; every change of the wind affects him, and every cloudy day makes a prisoner of him.—The man of fashion need not go to bed with the sun, nor need he rise before that active planet has shed his cheering influence a full hour upon the busy

world—but he ought not to entertain the erroneous notion that he cannot be happy without breaking through the order of nature by turning night into day, as if he thought it beneath his dignity to allow the same luminary to light him, which lights the world.—Nor ought he to suppose that no pleasure, worth his notice, can exist till the “Sable goddess, on her ebony throne, has held her leaden sceptre o’er a “slumbering world.”

Pleasure is not confined to midnight, but is of all hours.—The air of rooms where fashionable people assemble to pass their evenings together, especially when crowded and surrounded with blazing lights, soon loses its elasticity and purity, and becomes injurious; hence the frequency of vertigos, or dizziness, and of swoonings, in large assemblies.—By sitting up late at night, they are reduced to the necessity of lying abed, and breathing the confined air of a chamber all the morning. I have not a wish to strike at the existence of pleasure, to which people of fortune have a legal title. I only request them to observe such rules as will not only insure but prolong their pleasures.—The preservation of health may be secured without reducing the opulent and polite to live upon coarse, insipid, or gross provision: such fare requires organs fortified by exercise and open air.

The town air, much thicker than that of the country, renders the appetite less craving, and the digestive powers less vigorous—hence the necessity for lighter and more palatable diet than that which satisfies the hardy workman. The delicacy and inactivity of the fashionable will not admit of his living on four bread and smoked bacon—such food would torment him with sickness, flatulence, and colic. There ought, therefore, to be a specific difference in their diet—nor need joy-inspiring wine be banished from their festive board: temperance and moderation are all that are required.—Nature is content with simplicity and moderation, but luxury knows no bounds.—Imaginary wants cannot be gratified.—Every animal except man follows nature’s dictates. Man alone riots at large, and ransacks the whole creation in

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quest of luxuries, to his own destruction. The organs, inflamed by too much indulgence in high seasoned meats and strong wines, soon lose their relish for every thing that is not both delicious and rare; while the water drinker is never fatiated.

The Creator and Preserver of the world has furnished it with an infinite variety of meats and drinks for the support and comfort of his creatures, and has annexed to the use thereof a degree of gratification: and we may safely consult our satisfaction in the choice. But though this be the case, we are bound by the laws of temperance, not to exceed this allowed satisfaction; and are taught by reason and the consideration of our own safety to abstain from the excessive indulgence in every thing which, either from quantity or quality, has a tendency to destroy or impair self-government, to weaken the dominion of reason over the passions, or to impair the constitution and shorten the period of life.

We see daily examples of the pernicious effects of the causes which have been enumerated, among people in fashionable life. Diseases of the most formidable nature are the common effects—among these may be numbered “full gorged apoplexy, distorting convulsion, joint-racking gout, panting asthma, raving phrenzy, half-dead palsy, emaciated atrophy, and swollen dropsy, with many more of dreadful import”—disorders which one would think sufficient to deter the most desperate (if not totally destitute of reflexion) from every species of excess, and sufficient to determine him to the undeviating observance of temperance and regularity, which, with due attention to daily exercise, in pure and open air, and preserving the mind from the ravages of vexation, will insure health, and for the most part extend life to the longest span.



Free thoughts upon the cause and cure of the pulmonary consumption.

From medical enquiries and observations; by Dr. Rush.

THE ancient Jews used to say that a man does not fulfil his duties in life, who passes through it, without building a house, planting a

tree, and leaving a child behind him. A physician, in like manner, should consider his obligations to his profession and society, as undischarged, who has not attempted to lessen the number of incurable diseases. This is my apology, for presuming to make the consumption the subject of a medical enquiry.

Perhaps I may suggest an idea, or fact, that may awaken the ideas and facts which now lie useless in the memories and common-place books of other physicians; or I may direct their attention to some useful experiments upon this subject.

I shall begin my observations upon the consumption, by remarking,

1. That it is unknown among the Indians in North America.

2. It is scarcely known by those citizens of the united states, who live in the first stage of civilized life, and who have lately obtained the title of the first settlers.

The principal occupations of the Indian consist in war, fishing, and hunting. Those of the first settler, are fishing, hunting, and the laborious employments of subduing the earth, cutting down forests, building a house and barn, and distant excursions in all kinds of weather, to mills and courts. All of which tend to excite and preserve in the system, something like the Indian vigour of constitution.

3. It is less common in country places than in cities, and increases in both, with intemperance and sedentary modes of life.

4. Ship and house carpenters, smiths, and all those artificers, whose business requires great exertions of strength, in the open air in all seasons of the year, are less subject to this disorder, than men who work under cover, and at occupations which do not require the constant action of their limbs.

5. Women, who sit more than men, and whose work is connected with less exertion, are most subject to the consumption.

From these facts it would seem, that the most probable method of curing the consumption, is to revive in the constitution, by means of exercise or labour, that vigour which belongs to the Indians, or to mankind in their first stage of civilization.

The efficacy of these means of curing consumption will appear, when we enquire into the relative merit of the several remedies which have been used by physicians in this disorder.

I shall not produce among these remedies the numerous receipts for syrups, boluses, electuaries, decoctions, infusions, pills, medicated waters, powders, draughts, mixtures, and diet-drinks, which have so long and so steadily been used in this disease; nor shall I mention as a remedy, the best accommodated diet, submitted to with the most patient self-denial; for not one of them all without the aid of exercise, has ever, I believe, cured a single consumption.

1. Sea voyages have cured consumptions; but it has been only when they have been so long, or so frequent, as to substitute the long continuance of gentle, to violent degrees of exercise of a shorter duration.

2. A change of climate has often been prescribed for the cure of consumptions, but I do not recollect an instance of its having succeeded, except when it has been accompanied by exercise, as in travelling, or by some active laborious pursuit.

Doctor Gordon, of Madeira, ascribes the inefficacy of the air of Madeira in the consumption, in part, to the difficulty patients find of using exercise in carriages, or even on horseback, from the badness of the roads in that island.

3. Journeys have often performed cures in the consumption, but it has been chiefly when they have been long, and accompanied by difficulties which have roused and invigorated the powers of the mind and body.

4. Vomits and nauseating medicines have been much celebrated for the cure of consumptions. These, by procuring a temporary determination to the surface of the body, so far lessen the pain and cough as to enable patients to use profitable exercise. Where this has not accompanied or succeeded the exhibition of vomits, I believe they have seldom afforded any permanent relief.

5. Blood-letting has often relieved consumptions; but it has been only by removing the troublesome symptoms of inflammatory diathesis, and

thereby enabling the patients to use exercise or labour, with advantage.

6. Vegetable bitters and some of the stimulating gums have in some instances afforded relief in consumptions; but they have done so only in those cases where there was a great debility, accompanied by a total absence of inflammatory diathesis. They have most probably acted by their tonic qualities as substitutes for labour and exercise.

7. A plentiful and regular perspiration excited by means of a flannel shirt worn next to the skin, or by means of a stove-room, or by a warm climate, has in many instances prolonged life in consumptive habits; but all these remedies have acted as palliatives only, and thereby have enabled the consumptive patients to enjoy the more beneficial effects of exercise.

8. Blisters, setons, and issues, by determining the perspirable matter from the lungs to the surface of the body, lessen pain and cough, and thereby prepare the system for the more salutary effects of exercise.

9. The effects of swinging, upon the pulse and respiration, leave us no room to doubt of its being a tonic remedy, and therefore a safe and agreeable substitute for exercise.

From all these facts it is evident that the remedies for consumptions must be sought for in those exercises and employments which give the greatest vigour to the constitution. And here I am happy in being able to produce several facts which demonstrate the safety and certainty of this method of cure.

During the late war, I saw three instances of persons in confirmed consumptions who were perfectly cured by the hardships of a military life. They had been my patients previously to their entering into the army. Besides these, I have heard of four well attested cases of similar recoveries from nearly the same remedies. One of these was the son of a farmer in New Jersey, who was sent to sea as the last resource for a consumption. Soon after he left the American shore, he was taken by a British cruiser, and compelled to share in all the duties and hardships of a common sailor. After serving in this capacity

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for twenty-two months, he made his escape, and landed at Boston, from whence he travelled on foot to his father's house, (nearly four hundred miles) where he arrived in perfect health.

Doctor Way, of Wilmington, informed me, that a certain Abner Cloud, who was reduced so low by a pulmonary consumption as to be beyond all relief from medicine, was so much relieved by sleeping in the open air, and by the usual toils of building a hut and improving a farm in the unsettled parts of a new county in Pennsylvania, that he thought him in a fair way of a perfect recovery.

Doctor Latimer, of Wilmington, had been long afflicted with a cough and an occasional hæmoptysis. He entered into the American army as a surgeon, and served in that capacity till near the end of the war; during which time he was perfectly free from all pulmonic complaints. The spitting of blood returned soon after he settled in private practice. To remedy this complaint, he had recourse to a low diet, but finding it ineffectual, he partook liberally of the usual diet of healthy men, and he now (as he lately informed me) enjoys a good share of health.

It would be very easy to add many other cases, in which labour, the employments of agriculture, and a life of hardship by sea and land, have prevented, relieved, or cured not only the consumption, but pulmonary diseases of all kinds.

To the cases that have been mentioned, I shall add only one more, which was lately communicated to me by the venerable doctor Franklin, whose conversation at all times conveys instruction, and not less in medicine than upon other subjects. In travelling many years ago, through New England, the doctor overtook the post rider; and after some enquiries into the history of his life, he informed him that he was bred a shoemaker; that his confinement, and other circumstances, had brought on a consumption, for which he was ordered by a physician to ride on horseback. Finding this mode of exercise too expensive, he made interest, upon the death of an old post rider, to succeed to his appointment, in which he perfect-

ly recovered his health in two years. After this he returned to his old trade, upon which his consumption returned. He again mounted his horse, and rode post in all seasons and weathers, between New York and Connecticut river, (about one hundred and forty miles); in which employment he continued upward of thirty years, in perfect health.

These facts, I hope, are sufficient to establish the advantages of restoring the original vigour of the constitution, in every attempt to effect a radical cure of consumption.

[To be concluded in our next.]



History of a dysentery, in the 22d regiment of the late continental army, occasioned by the barracks' being over crowded, and not properly ventilated. By doctor Ebenezer Beardsley.

ABOUT the first of April, 1776, the American army, under the command of his excellency gen. Washington, marched from Boston to New York, at which place they arrived about the middle of the month. The sick and invalids having been left behind in the hospitals, the whole army was in perfect health.

The troops were quartered in barracks, and in the houses of the citizens, till about the 10th of May, when they went into tents, except the 22d regiment, under the command of col. Samuel Wyllys, who, for want of tents, continued in their quarters in Smith-street.

The regiment were very healthy till about the middle of the month, when more than one hundred men were taken down with the dysentery in the space of one week. Such a sudden invasion of this formidable disease alarmed me very much, and I was greatly surprised, upon enquiry, to find, that there was not a single dysenteric patient in the whole army, except those who belonged to our regiment. From this circumstance I concluded, that the disease was occasioned by some cause peculiar to the city; but after a particular enquiry, I could not find that there was a single inhabitant sick with this disease in the city: those who lived in the same street with us, and

many of them in the same houses, were free from that or any other acute disease. For several days, I was much perplexed, and entirely at a loss to determine what had given rise to the disease. At length I observed, that not only the inhabitants who lived with us were free from the distemper, but several whole companies of the same regiment had nothing of it. This led me to consider more minutely the circumstances and situation of the sick, the whole of whom were quartered either in low, underground rooms, or in chambers or garrets, which were so situated as not to admit a free circulation of air. The rooms were also considerably less than usual, in proportion to the number of men. Having made these discoveries and observations, I concluded at once that the disease originated from the confined and putrid atmosphere, which these unfortunate men lived in. I immediately communicated my observations to the colonel, and requested that the men, both sick and well, might be removed out of those rooms into such as were more airy and capacious. This measure was attended with the most salutary consequences: those who were sick, recovered in a short time, except two, who died; and no more being seized with the distemper, in a few weeks the regiment became quite healthy. This striking instance of the pernicious effects of putrid, stagnant air, was of great service to me in the course of the campaign. In the months of July, August, and September, the dysentery, bilious and other fevers of the putrid kind, became very rife in the army. I took great pains to procure for our men, who were down with those disorders, large rooms; and to have them well ventilated, and cleansed once or twice a week. Yet under these circumstances I frequently found, *cæteris paribus*, that the sick who lay in and near the corners of the rooms, were handled much more severely than those who lay in and near the middle of them. I do not remember to have met with this observation before, but I think it is of no small importance in the treatment of dysenteries, and other putrid fevers.

From the foregoing history, the

following practical deductions may be made. First, that, *cæteris paribus*, people who live in airy, capacious houses, are less liable to be seized with dysenteries and other putrid fevers, than those who live in smaller houses, and breathe a more confined air. Secondly, that patients labouring under these diseases, instead of being confined in small, tight rooms, (the common and fatal practice of the country in general) ought either not to be confined to the house at all, or to be placed in the most spacious and airy rooms. Thirdly, that it is highly probable, that smothering feather beds, warm, close rooms, and over-careful nursing, are among the principal causes of the fatality which too often attends this class of diseases. Fourthly, that persons in the latter stages of a pulmonary consumption, when they usually spit large quantities of purulent matter, and their perspiration and other excreta are of a putrid disposition, ought to be treated in this respect, as tho' they were sick with a dysentery or other putrid fever; which will not only conduce to their preservation and comfort, but is the only means of safety to their attendants and friends. *Newhaven, Jan. 2, 1788.*



Letter from John Lamb, esq. to the hon. John Lansing, esq.
New York, Jan. 10, 1789.

S I R,

I HAVE the honour of transmitting to you, an account of the exports, from the port of New York, for the last year, taken from the manifests lodged in the custom house. At the same time, I must observe, that although the exports appear, (from the enclosed account) very considerable for that period: yet, it does not comprehend the whole—as very great quantities of wheat, flour, and other produce, as well as foreign merchandise, are exported in coasting vessels, the masters of which are not obliged to enter and clear.

I have the honour to be,
With great respect, sir,
Your obedient servant,

JOHN LAMB.

Busbels of wheat,	321,841
Indian corn,	182,785
Rye,	9,950

1789.]

Exports from New York in 1788.

251

Busbels of Buckwheat,	11,690	No. of Hoops,	500,343
Oats,	11,436	Shingles,	1,798,525
Salt,	27,706	Staves and heading,	4,215,418
Barrels of flour,	61,825	Oars,	7,762
Beef,	8,600	Hand spikes,	2,081
Pork,	8,642	Trunnels,	5,000
Fish,	3,737	Shaken hhd's.	838
Cyder,	515	Carriages,	18
Apples,	2,739	Windfor chairs,	1,130
Potatoes,	1,921	Hogs,	841
Bread,	42,065	Horses,	600
Lampblack,	200	Sheep,	1,065
Coffee,	298	Horned cattle,	109
Hams,	190	Raw hides,	6,411
Vinegar,	3	Cables,	4
Peas,	4,293	Coils of cordage,	225
Tallow,	96	Spars,	214
Nuts,	245	Boats,	11
Oil,	517	Pieces of mahogany,	478
Naval stores,	7,896	Bricks,	245,283
Indigo,	48	Iron pots,	201
Potash,	13,124	Mill stones,	50
Honey,	73	House frames,	2
Beefwax,	58	Saddles,	8
Mustard,	6	Oysters,	60,000
Starch,	145	Feet of boards,	1,101,453
Ginger,	6	Scantling,	404,672
Gunpowder,	137	Plank,	30,627
Clover seed,	66	Pieces of square timber,	3,421
Rye meal,	8,653	Dye-wood,	16,126
Indian meal,	2,024	Cherry wood,	220
Hogheads of lime,	85	Bunches of onions,	92,341
Cyder,	149	Pounds of cheese,	67,230
Ginseng,	410	Flax,	27,279
Flaxseed,	42,042	Hams,	5,651
Flax,	9	Bars of iron,	15,133
Melasses,	259	Dozens of poultry,	325
Porter,	194	Tons of grind stones,	4
Sugar,	349	Hemp,	200
Tobacco,	764	Hay,	12
Loaf sugar,	29	Nail-rod's,	4
Snuff,	14	Lead,	1
Pipes of wine,	360	Pig iron,	530
Brandy,	129	Timber,	424
Punchons of rum,	996	Lignumvitæ,	0
Casks of oak bark,	132	Steel,	7
Furs,	138	Clay,	6
Dyestuff,	77	Bales of cotton,	557
Nails,	32	Chests of tea,	1,700
Rice,	2,007	Cases of gin,	675
Gin,	4	Chaldrons of coals,	56
Kegs of bread,	4,623	Pairs of shoes,	114
Raisins,	439	Bundles of tow cloth,	90
Paint,	6	Leather,	30
Firkins of butter,	2,541	Whalebone,	22
Hogs lard,	1,231	Bags of allspice,	100
Jars of raisins,	179	Cocoa,	365
Honey,	71	Pepper,	24
No. of anchors,	120	Crates of earthen ware,	148
Pine boards,	54,114	Bolts of canvas,	27

Boxes of candles,	914	From John Gellston,	£. s. d.
Soap,	788	esq. collector of the	
Sweet oil,	214	port of Sagg Har-	
Chocolate,	251	bour,	194 19 11
Lemons,	211	From vendue mas-	
Wine,	12	ter's duty,	2,142 10 11
Packages of dry goods,	1,252	For tax, 1786,	2,194 14 11
		For tax, 1787,	32,761 19 10
		For quit rents,	831 5 0
		From commissioners	
		of Indian affairs,	1,078 14 11
		From L. Kortright,	
		&c. costs in a suit	
		repaid by them,	21 9 9
		For lead sold,	41 7 4
		Interest from the loan-	
		officers,	6,695 4 5
		Total, £. 116,060	15 4

PAYMENTS.

Barrels flour,	104,357	To the members of	
Tierces and barrels bread,	19,033	the legislature and of-	
Bushels wheat,	700,689	ficers of the state, £. 12,232	7 2
Indian corn,	66,045	To the commission-	
Flaxseed,	111,845	ers of loans for the	
Casks beef and pork,	9,949	united states,	23,511 5 0
Butter,	3,507	To the commission-	
Tierces rice,	1,998	ers for running the	
Barrels fish,	2,756	Pennsylvania line,	2,111 18 6
Naval stores,	4,737	To the commission-	
Peas and beans,	1,524	ers for running the	
Beer and cyder,	2,870	Massachusetts line,	275 10 0
Staves, heading, & boards,	5,208,000	To the commission-	
Gallons wine,	29,601	ers of forfeitures,	1,079 19 11
Rum,	109,731	To the commission-	
Melasses,	10,958	ers of Indian affairs,	6,235 7 0
Hundred of sugar,	2,066	To the commission-	
Tons potash,	355	ers of sequestration,	113 14 0
Pearl do.	224	To the custom-	
Pig iron,	800	house officers in New	
Bar iron,	690	York,	5,020 10 0
Copper ore,	1	To ditto Sagg Har-	
Dye wood,	427	bour,	25 0 0
Feet mahogany,	206,100	To Chemung com-	
Bales furs,	683	missioners,	50 0 0
Cotton wool,	23	To invalid pen-	
Pounds beefwax,	1,096	sioners,	8,198 17 8
Bushels salt,	13,282	For sundry services	
Boxes soap and candles,	2,515	performed, &c. dur-	
Horses,	168	ing the late war,	1,643 4 1
Casks of oil,	1,113	To Fleming and	
Indigo,	32	Job, a repayment of	
Hhds. tobacco,	34	money they paid loan-	
		officers,	486 13 4
		For mortgages, le-	
		gacies, and other	
		claims on forfeited	
		estates,	8,319 14 11

Account of the receipts and pay-
ments of the state of New York,
from the 1st of January to the 31st
of December, 1788.

RECEIPTS. £. s. d.

FROM John Lamb,
esq. collector of the
port of New York, 70,098 8 4

Carried over 69,304 1 7

	£.	s.	d.
Brought over	69,304	1	7½
For bounty on hemp,	151	12	9
For printing,	395	3	6
For reviling the laws,	466	13	4
For transcribing records,	644	18	6
For recording papers for the commi- oners of forfeitures,	66	8	3
For executing ge- neral Montgomery's monument,	132	9	0
Paper money emit- ted in 1780, redeemed,	276	11	0
For one fourth of interest certificates,	36,323	2	6
For contingencies,	333	6	11
For engraving, printing, paper, &c. for the new money,	872	5	0
Total,	108,976	12	4½

General exports from the port of
Charleston South Carolina, from
November 1786, to November 1787.
Produce of South Carolina.

Rice,	61,754 barrels
	6,882 half do.
Tobacco,	5,493 hhd.
Indigo,	2,783 casks
Deer skins,	205 hhd.
	256 bales
Racoon skins,	767
Otter skins,	12
Beaver skins,	1 hhd.
	1 bale
	1 box and
	873 lbs
Cotton,	33 bags and
	131 lbs
Wool,	1 bag
Feathers,	31 bags and
	600 lbs
Pitch,	1,904 barrels
Tar,	2,230 barrels
Rozin,	739 ditto
Turpentine,	3,707 ditto
Spirits of turpentine,	32 ditto
Lumber,	1,057,600 feet
Shingles,	3,689,600
Staves,	1,023,700
Cedar,	2,726 logs
	514 plank and 8,800 feet
Corn,	29,088 bushels
Butter,	1,111 firkins

Vol. V.

Beef,	362 barrels
Pork,	176 ditto
Soap,	259 boxes
Candles,	119 ditto
Beefwax,	42 casks
Ground nuts,	51 casks
Pink, snake and ginseng roots,	4 hhd.
	28 casks
	3 boxes
Sarsaparilla,	10 bales
	15 casks
	57 bundles
Leather,	3,308 hides
	4,212 fides
Bacon and hams,	13 casks
	3,455 lbs
Oranges,	21 casks
Bricks,	97,000
Reeds,	121,800
Horns,	6,900

Produce of America imported into
and exported from Charleston.

Flour,	8,783 barrels
Bread,	730 ditto
	835 kegs
Fish,	965 barrels
	110 quintals and
	900 lbs
Potatoes,	260 barrels
	1,238 bushels
Onions,	36 barrels
	14,624 bunches
Oats,	360 bushels
Apples,	72 barrels
Cyder,	56 ditto

Foreign produce imported into and
exported from Charleston.

Rum, W. I. & N. E.	254 hhd.
& pun,	121 casks and barrels
Wine,	31 pipes
	41 hhd.
	569 casks
	358 casks
Brandy,	91 pipes
	88 casks
Gin,	1,561 casks
Porter,	324 hhd. & casks
Salt,	16,332 bushels
Melaffes,	560 hhd.
Sugar,	32 hhd.
	275 chests
	276 casks
Coffee,	3 hhd.
	182 casks
	71 bags
	5,500 lbs.
Cocoa,	30 hhd.
	94 casks
Hh	

Cocoa,	106 bags
Pimento,	143 bags
Logwood,	220½ tons
—, —, —,	300 quintals
—, —, —,	598 pieces
Mahogany,	2,967 logs
—, —, —,	18,638 feet
Fustic,	41½ tons
—, —, —,	2,708 pieces
Lignum vitæ,	50½ tons
—, —, —,	300 pieces
Yellow sanders,	240 pieces
—, —, —,	6,450 lbs.
Cane wood,	20 pieces
Elephants teeth,	15
Iron,	22½ tons
—, —, —,	229 bars
Coals,	220 tons
Russia hemp,	7 tons
—, —, —,	11,200 lbs.
Cordage,	6 cables
—, —, —,	8 coils
—, —, —,	10,000 lbs.
Anchors,	6

Goods of different kinds exported in

—, —, —,	58 hhds.
—, —, —,	552 casks
—, —, —,	150 bales
—, —, —,	148 trunks
—, —, —,	490 cases and boxes
—, —, —,	102 crates
—, —, —,	51 bundles
—, —, —,	209 jugs and jars
—, —, —,	477 kegs
Loose, 185 pieces duck and oznabrigs	
—, —, —,	512 iron pots
—, —, —,	45 grind stones & quern stones

Vessels cleared out at the custom-house, Charleston, from November 1786, to November 1787, belonging to the following nations.

A M E R I C A.

40 ships, measuring	7,372 tons
3 snows,	252
95 brigs,	9,824
285 sloops,	12,650
312 schooners,	11,433
735	41,531

G R E A T B R I T A I N.

35 ships,	7,152 tons
4 snows,	535
46 brigs,	5,652
35 sloops,	2,160
28 schooners,	1,288
148	16,787

S P A I N.

2 brigs,	273 tons
3 sloops,	150
39 schooners,	650
—, —, —,	—
44	1,073

F R A N C E.

1 snow,	180 tons
3 brigs,	235
2 sloops,	138
2 schooners,	162
—, —, —,	—
8	715

UNITED NETHERLANDS.

1 ship,	290
4 brigs,	509
—, —, —,	—
5	799

I R E L A N D.

1 ship,	218 tons
1 brig,	101
—, —, —,	—
2	319

Altona,	1 ship,	280
Bremen,	1 brig,	193
Denmark,	1 ditto,	164
Hamburgh,	1 ditto,	130
Austria,	1 ditto,	127

Total, 947 vessels, 62,118 tons.

Custom-house, Charleston, South Carolina, December 1, 1787.

George A. Hall, collector.

Extracts from "an enquiry into the causes of the present grievances of America." Published in Wilmington, Delaware.

IT has given me pain to see many writers in defence of the new constitution, building all their schemes of future grandeur and importance on commerce; visions baseless as the air, hopes vain and deceitful as the element on which they are built.

Commerce is the glory of England, we all allow; but had Britain been equal in extent of territory to the united states, she had not been a naval power to this day; because she could have employed her subjects better, and to more advantage on shore. If Europe had not been overstocked with inhabitants, Columbus had not explored a new world. Here, then, to reason fairly, we may say, that Bri-

tain has greater reason to deplore her situation, than to boast of her advantages. They may with propriety boast of commerce, who cannot exist without it.

If we ever mean to be truly independent, as individuals and as a nation, like the silk worm we must spin the web from our own bowels, and leaving the manufactures, the fashions, and vices of Europeans to themselves, pursue our true interest. To illustrate this, look round among yourselves; who are in general the most independent men in this state? The quaker, the man who is not engaged in idle speculations, who owns no slaves, who brings up his children to trades and industry, to become serviceable members to the community, who clothes his family in homespun. This man is a more honourable member of the community and a better subject to government, than the speculating merchant, who, after having drained the country of cash, becomes a bankrupt himself; or the Carolinian nabob, who, though tyrannizing over a thousand negroes, is continually in debt, and, possessing neither honour nor honesty, pays his creditor with a pine barren act.

Commerce has been, and must continue to be to America, what the Mississippi and South Sea schemes were to France and England; bubbles which ruined thousands; but manual industry, agriculture, and manufactures are the life and soul of governments, the true and only source from which happiness, riches and power can possibly be derived.

Our children must be all doctors or lawyers, because it is mean to be an artificer, or mechanic. However suitable such notions may be to the meridian of France or England, where there is more difference between man and man, than between man and beast, yet surely in republican governments, founded upon the broad basis of equality, they are highly contemptible and ridiculous. This stupid prejudice is not the growth of America, but a poisonous weed imported from Britain with crape cushions and hoop petticoats. We are not content with aping her ridiculous fashions, but must implicitly adopt her contemptible prejudices. The plough has been always

held honourable, it composes part of the arms of the state, and why not the plough maker? why should the man who drives the plough, be esteemed in preference to him that made it? Away with such idle and foolish distinctions, the bane and poison of the state. So long as we wear clothes, we ought to esteem and encourage our manufacturers, and mechanics, not despise and undervalue them, they being in fact a principal pillar in the state, and of as much consequence as the farmers themselves. Sciences, agriculture, and manufactures, like three beams, though standing upon different foundations, unite at the top and mutually support each other. The man of science instructs, the farmer feeds, and the mechanic clothes, and furnishes us with utensils.

Sciences are encouraged, agriculture is encouraged, but manufactures are entirely neglected: hence all our difficulties. If this leg be taken away, the other two must fall. Let me then, my fellow citizens, endeavour to persuade you to encourage your own manufactures, and remember it is the only alternative which can save you from a general bankruptcy. To effect this, foreign manufactures must be immediately prohibited, for it is a farce to pretend to encourage our own, while foreign are admitted. No doubt, the usual objection will be bandied about, that the preference ought to be given to the cheapest goods; but this objection is founded neither in sense nor reason, because, if three shillings per yard is paid for linen, the manufacture of the state, the cost of the linen remains in the state, besides maintaining the different persons employed in the manufacture; but if one shilling and six-pence per yard be given for foreign linen of the same quality, it is evident that the manufacture of this linen has employed no person in the state, and the whole cost goes directly from us. From hence it may be easily proved that it is cheaper to buy home-made linen at five shillings, than foreign of the same quality at three shillings per yard. But the generality of men are averse to abstract thinking; they will not look beyond the surface of things; and the few, who do investigate this matter, will not act up to the dictates of their own rea-

son, but cry out, I as an individual can contribute but little to the encouragement of manufactures, besides I do not chouse to appear singular, but wear what others wear.

What then remains to be done, but to elect such men in your legislatures, as, you are convinced, will prohibit European manufactures, and encourage our own; we will then have the most skilful artificers Europe can afford; they will migrate here as soon as they are encouraged; but if we do not encourage them, how can we expect them? The few that are here now, are obliged to go to hard labour for subsistence; if they do not, they must starve.

I will now endeavour to answer the objections I have heard made against the encouragement of American manufactures.

Objection 1st. "If we prohibit foreign goods, we will have no sale for our flour." This is entirely a mistake; the greatest part of the flour which is exported, goes to the West Indies, by way of remittances to Europe, because the merchant has then a profit upon the remittances he makes to his correspondent. But surely if we bought no English goods, they would be obliged to send cash, which would turn our trade into the right channel, and nearly the whole amount of our exports, would remain in cash here; therefore this objection is mere sound.

Objection 2d. "We never will be able to manufacture equal to the British." This is also a mistake; the genius of Americans has uniformly given the lie to assertions of this kind, witness shipbuilding, watermills, wheel-carriages, cast iron, cotton cards, and paper.

Objection 3d. "We cannot manufacture until the price of labour is as low as it is in Europe." This objection can only be equalled in absurdity by the good old woman, who prohibited her son from going into the water until he could swim. There is no doubt but when this event happens, manufactures will be in their meridian.

Objection 4th. "We cannot manufacture while we have so much vacant land." This objection is easily answered: all men are not calculated to drive a plough; besides the natural aversion many of our youth have

to ploughing, there are others whom nature or accident has incapacitated to follow this business; some are lame, others have delicate constitutions and weak nerves, and are therefore calculated for employments which require more skill than labour; and of the other sex, how many women would be relieved, if only linens below five shillings a yard were prohibited?

By the encouragement of our own manufactures, we may reasonably expect every advantage. The farmer will get a better price for his flax, and wool, and thousands of indigent females may maintain themselves by their wheels, and mechanics of every denomination have constant employment, and be enabled to pay a large proportion of the public taxes. The luxury of individuals, so much complained of in the present day, will be then a public benefit. The extravagance of the rich will clothe and feed the poor. Before I dismiss this article, I cannot help observing, that the profuse importation of luxuries, is generally thought the principal source of our distress. This opinion is erroneous; where there is one guinea spent in silks, laces, or any other article of finery, there are twenty guineas spent in cloths and linens of the middling and inferior quality; those articles are used by the middling and lower classes of people, who are most numerous: they are always in demand, and the sums expended on them are immense. The British manufactures have so scandalously degenerated of late, that there is scarcely a cloth to be bought but what is thread-bare; their cotton corduroys and velvets lose the pile or cover in two months wear: their thread stockings are mere cobwebs, and their calicoes but little better. The cause of this evident: when a woollen or linen-draper, or storekeeper in England, receives a faulty piece of goods from the manufacturer, he may return it; but those which come to the American market cannot be returned; the expence of freight and charges will not admit of it; hence we pay an advanced price for all the trash of the three kingdoms. Surely this alone would be a sufficient spur for us to encourage our own manufactures, and no longer be the willing dupes of men three thou-

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land miles distant. It is notorious, that landed property throughout the united states has fallen four hundred per cent. in value, and indeed almost every other kind of property in nearly the same proportion; but British goods hold up one uniform price. To deal upon an equal footing, instead of giving thirty-five shillings for a yard of broadcloth, we ought to give but eight shillings and nine pence. Thus it is evident we are playing the losing game; but if we manufactured ourselves, the prices of store goods would be subject to the same variation, with all other kinds of property, and would rise and fall with them. The British merchants or agents seem to be the only people in America who flourish.

[To be continued.]

Extracts from an essay entitled "national arithmetic, or observations on the finances of the commonwealth of Massachusetts."

What labour is profitable, and what unprofitable to the state.

Agriculture.

WHAT I conceive to be profitable to the state, is, 1st, The husbandman's labour. He who first undertakes the hardy but pleasing work of clearing the wilderness, and bringing it into a fruitful field, deserves to be ranked amongst the most useful labourers in the community. By the industry of him who even cultivates the open field, a state receives much benefit; from both it is enriched. The labour of these, yields to the government additional subjects; it encourages our shipping, by furnishing the seaman's bread;—it gives to the merchant and mechanic their loaves, and to the cattle their fodder. There is no country in Europe dependent on another people for its bread corn, which is not, in time of war, in danger of being famished*; whereas, if a state be a-

NOTE.

* It is from a sense of such danger, that the seven provinces of the United Netherlands are so seldom at war with their neighbours. Infinite in numbers, beyond what the country of itself can support, and afraid of being overflowed by opening their water fences, they would rather suffer, than quarrel.

ble to maintain itself upon its own natural productions—if its ports be shut, and its trade stopped—yet it is able to undergo years of hardship, and possibly, in the end, may weary its enemies into ruin, by the expence and fatigue to which it forces them, in carrying on a tedious and fruitless blockade.† If a country like the Massachusetts, blessed with an excellent soil, and an extensive territory, cannot support itself, it must be from an improvidence, unequalled amongst the indolent inhabitants of Ethiopia. Imported provisions, of every kind, ought to be highly duties or absolutely interdicted. It is a disgrace to the commonwealth, and a great discouragement to the industry of the farmer, to permit English cheese, Irish butter, beef, candles and soap, to have an entry in our ports. To promote agriculture by forwarding the raising of grain, would naturally make room for the breeding of cattle, consequently for an extra quantity of beef, an article which, from the immense and rich pasturage of the state, could, under proper encouragement, be made one of the most extensive and profitable exports which it can possibly have; and as where grain is raised, there must be fodder for cattle, and much land laid out for grafs, both could be forwarded, whilst one is. Add to these, the yeoman's industry, whose continual labour in clearing new lands, makes establishments of new farms, on which quantities of grain, leather, wool, hemp, and flax, may be raised, and might very soon, by fit attention, be made to exceed our consumption, and become articles of supply to other nations. I have no doubt, that so desirable an event is not far distant. It certainly is within our reach: and as the number of the people increases, in a proportion to the means of their support, such encouragement will also be beneficial in giving us the true riches

NOTE.

† Witness the effects in the late revolution, of the Britons blockading the port of Boston, and carrying on a war at three thousand miles distance from their own fields and supplies; when America had boundless stores in the annual products of her vast region.

of every country, namely, additional numbers of good subjects.

Cod fishery.

Next to the farmer's, I rank the labour of the cod-fishermen, in point of utility to the state. In the year 1774, there were belonging to Massachusetts, eleven hundred sail of fishing vessels, from fifteen to seventy-five tons each, which, with the ships that carried the fish to market, employed about twenty thousand men. These fishing vessels made on an average, two hundred and fifty quintals of dried fish, in one season, some having caught eight hundred, others forty quintals, the greatest part of which went to markets, whence we could draw nothing in return but silver and gold; and this again paying for labour, for which the owner wanted nothing but money in exchange, maintained him, was communicated from him to others, and so from these to more, till at length the good effects of this branch of labour, were felt by the community in general, especially, as it was a commodity, which Great Britain could not consume herself, or oblige us to carry into her ports without danger of spoiling. The same good effects to the state, I am happy in anticipating, from the probability there is, that the same branch of profitable labour, will be revived; and that as soon as the nature of the thing will admit, which will be as speedily as fishermen can be formed, with whose occupation a due acquaintance is necessarily attained by a slower progress than that of the farmer, which is acquired by short example or nervous exertion. The cod-fishery being so very beneficial a branch of labour to the state, I hope it will meet with every public encouragement, that so important a subject requires.

Mackarel fishery.

The mackarel-fishery, for the short time it lasts, is a source, from which the state derives as much advantage, as from any other sort of labour whatever. About one hundred sail of mackarel-catchers, were fitted out last year,—their success was astonishing. Upon an average, each vessel caught one hundred and fifty barrels, which, at one guinea per barrel, brought clear gain to the commonwealth, deducting salt and barrels, 117,500 dollars, from

the labour of fourteen hundred hands (half of whom were boys) in sixteen or seventeen weeks; a species of profitable labour, that is not surpassed by the pearl-fishery on the Ceylon coast. Would it not be good policy in our government, to reward by a premium, the first that returns with a full fare, as well as he who shall strike the largest quantity of salmon in one season? The policy of Holland, in the herring-fishery, exhibits to us an example of this kind, which has nearly given her the monopoly of that business, which is of so much consequence in that state's estimation, that she has ordered, when prayers are publicly addressed to the Supreme Being, to have it mentioned, "that it would please him, to bless the government, the lords, the states, and also, their great* and small fisheries." When any branch of business shall become the great object of our state's attention, as the herring and other fisheries, have become that of the Dutch, we shall be sure of bringing it to the utmost height of profit, and national benefit. To effectually procure the earliest exertion in the fishing business, the first smack that arrives in the spring, with herrings at Amsterdam and Rotterdam, receives half a crown for each herring. For want of a national character in encouraging particular products, our cod, mackarel, salmon, alewife, shad and other fisheries, are only accidentally and occasionally carried on; as when the mackarel come on our coast and other fish up our rivers, we can hardly avoid catching them; whereas, the people and government ought to encourage them by a high price given by the former for fresh, and a large bounty allowed by the latter to the first vessel of such burden and of so many hands, which should, by a certain day, bring into port so many barrels of salted fish, caught in that season, or to the first three or four vessels which should bring in the largest quantity, and so with respect to the other fisheries mentioned.

Whale fishery.

In regard to these, the labour of

NOTE.

* What are meant by the great fisheries, are, the whale, seal, and fin fish, whereof they make train-oil.

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the whale fisherman is the most useful and beneficial to the state. The number of vessels employed in that fishery, and in carrying the oil to market, afforded a profit which equalled the cod-fishery.—And indeed, upon a review of the numbers employed in the one, and compared with those of the other, it is evident, as well as from their separate products, that it was much more advantageous. This labour was principally carried on from Nantucket: for out of two hundred sail employed in killing the fish, fifty only were fitted from other parts. The whole of this branch of useful labour, employed about two thousand eight hundred men, exclusive of those men necessarily engaged in shipping and carrying the oil to market. This, and the cod-fishery, were the great supports of this state. They formed the greatest part of her remittances to Europe, and were the great means of throwing the balance of trade in favour of Massachusetts. The spermaceti and brown oil, the candles made of matter extracted from some of the oil, together with the bone, netted a sum, not less on an average of three years, than one million three hundred thousand dollars, annually.

(To be continued.)

Three letters on the trade and commerce of America. P. 134.

LETTER II.

CONFORMABLY to the plan I proposed to myself in my first letter, I shall begin with enquiring what treaties we have already formed for the regulation of commerce; and that will naturally lead us to enquire what sort of treaties it is we ought to form with foreign nations.

A gentleman, in a late debate upon a bill brought into the house of assembly of Pennsylvania, for the encouragement of navigation and shipping, has told us that treaties of commerce with foreign nations, are to be considered as “marks and symptoms of friendship and amity, and nothing more.” If the gentleman took his idea from the treaties of amity and commerce already subsisting between the united states of America and foreign states, I must do him the justice to say, that I cannot deny but his opini-

on, so far, is by much too well founded; for surely never were treaties so superficially conceived, so unguardedly and so indefinitely worded, or so inadequate in every respect, to the business they were intended to perform.

I hope it will not be understood that I mean to throw any censure on the very worthy and respectable persons who were employed in concluding those treaties. Times may have been unfavourable: but whether the times were unfavourable, or whether it was for want of attending to the principles of commerce, “and the rules which ought to be followed, relative to the correspondence and commerce, which they desired to establish between their countries,” the fact is precisely as I have stated it. But that I may not seem to deal in assertion without proof, let the commercial treaties speak for themselves.

To begin with the first, i. e. the treaty of amity and commerce between the most christian king and the thirteen united states of North America, which, being the earliest, may be considered in some measure, as a *chef d'œuvre*, as it seems to be taken as a pattern for the rest. This treaty begins with reciting “that the parties, willing to fix in an equitable and permanent manner, the rules which ought to be followed relative to the correspondence and commerce which they desire to establish between their respective countries, states, and subjects, have judged that the said end could not be better obtained than by taking for the basis of this agreement, the most perfect equality and reciprocity, and by carefully avoiding all those burdensome preferences which are usually sources of debate, embarrassment, and discontent; by leaving also each party at liberty to make, respecting navigation and commerce, those interior regulations which it shall find most convenient to itself—and by founding the advantage of commerce solely upon reciprocal utility and the just rules of free intercourse; reserving withal to each party, the liberty of admitting at its pleasure, other nations to a participation of the same advantages.” This, it must be confessed, seems exceedingly specious in the effect; but let us examine a little further, in order to see how the bu-

sinews, in the issue, has been executed, that we may be able to judge how far these specious promises have been performed.

The first article recites, "that there shall be a firm and universal peace, and a true and sincere friendship between their respective countries and people."

The second contains a mutual engagement "not to grant any particular favour to other nations, in respect of commerce and navigation, which shall not immediately become common to the other party, who shall enjoy the same favour freely, if the concession was freely made, or on allowing the same compensation, if the concession was conditional." But now for the specific terms.

In the third article, it is stipulated, "that the subjects of the most christian king, shall pay in the ports, havens, roads, countries, islands, cities, or towns of the united states, or any of them, no other or greater duties or imposts of what nature soever they may be, or by what name soever called, than those which the nations most favoured, are or shall be obliged to pay; and they shall enjoy all the rights, liberties, privileges, immunities, and exemptions in trade, navigation, and commerce, whether in passing from one port in the said states to another, or in going to and from the same, from and to any part of the world, which the said nations do or shall enjoy."

The fourth article grants and confirms similar privileges to the people of the united states in the dominions of France, to those granted to the subjects of France by the united states, in the third article; together with an exemption in the fifth article, of the imposition of one hundred sous per ton, established in France, on foreign ships, unless when the ships of the united states shall load with the merchandize of France, for another port of the said dominions, in which case the ships shall pay the duty above mentioned, so long as other nations, the most favoured, shall be obliged to pay it." And this is the sum and substance of that treaty, with regard to commerce in general. The rest which follows, is chiefly applicable to a state of war.

Now pray let me ask what are the advantages so much boasted of in this treaty, which sets out with saying, "that the basis of the agreement is the most perfect equality and reciprocity?" Why they amount to neither more nor less than this, that French goods are to pay no more duties in American ports, than other (the most favoured nations) do pay, which, at that time, amounted to little, or almost nothing at all; but that American goods are to pay the same duties in French ports, as are paid by other nations, the most favoured.

Observe the difference.—The duties payable in the American ports on foreign goods, amount perhaps from one to two and a half, or perhaps five per cent. *ad valorem*. The duties payable in French ports, amount perhaps to forty, fifty, or an hundred per cent. Is this "founding the advantage of commerce solely upon reciprocal utility and the just rules of free intercourse?" I leave it to every thinking man to determine whether it is possible for any two countries to continue a commercial intercourse upon so unequal terms. To instance only with regard to England: English goods pay very little more duty in the American ports, than the goods of other foreign nations.—American goods in England—rice, for instance, pays seven shillings and four pence per hundred, which, when that article sells for twenty-two shillings, is after the rate of thirty-three pounds, six shillings, and eight pence per cent. duty.

Tobacco pays sixteen pence per pound duty, which, when tobacco sells at from nineteen to twenty pence per pound, is after the rate of five hundred per cent. duty, for every hundred pounds worth: therefore, for every hundred pounds worth of British goods imported into America, it requires five hundred pounds worth of tobacco to be sent by way of remittance to pay for them; since all the difference is paid in duty, and is so much absolutely deducted from its value, as an article of remittance. In France, where the treaty beforementioned, is still in being, the case is still worse; for there the duty amounts to three livres per pound; so that the planter, for all his care and industry—the man

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chant for his freight, insurance, and commission—has nothing to reckon upon but the sum it sells for above that duty, which in England is from three to four pence, and which, in a commercial view, is next to nothing.

American pitch, which sells in England for about six shillings and six pence, per hundred, pays one shilling per barrel duty. American turpentine, which sells at about ten shillings and six pence per hundred, pays two shillings and two pence and two-fifths duty: and whale oil, which sells at from twenty-two to twenty four pounds per ton, pays seventeen pounds six shillings and six pence duty, which amounts to a prohibition.

Now, with regard to the Dutch treaty, the preamble and the privileges granted to each nation, are about word for word with those contained in the French treaty, save only that to the tail of the third article, this reservation is tacked, viz. "That the united states of America, with their subjects and inhabitants, shall leave to those of their high mightinesses, the peaceable enjoyment of their rights in the countries, islands, and seas in the East and West Indies, without hindrance or molestation;" which, in plain

English, is saying, that the citizens of the united states shall have no connexion or intercourse with them whatsoever.

The treaty with Sweden is to the same effect as those with France and Holland. Thus we see at one stroke, with one single dash of the pen, and in the very first instance, France, Holland, and Sweden, have gained all the commercial advantages from America, which have been the subject of commercial warfare and recrimination with other nations, for ages, and that without Americans deriving any advantages in exchange for them (that I can discover) by way of return.

Is it any wonder, therefore, that the course of exchange should have risen between Philadelphia and London, and indeed to almost all parts of Europe, to the extravagant height of near eighty per cent.?

And what is to be expected, if we should be so very unwise as to continue a trade, much more if we should consent to a treaty with England, upon terms similar to those already subsisting between us and France, and between us, Sweden, and Holland?

A Citizen of Pennsylvania.

Philadelphia, Dec. 14, 1783.

—♦♦♦♦♦—
A bit of advice to Connecticut folks.*

My friends,

TIMES are hard—money is scarce—taxes are high—and private debts push us.—What shall we do? Why, hear a few facts—stubborn facts—and then take a bit of advice.

In the year 1637, our good forefathers declared an offensive war against the Pequot Indians. Their troops were ninety men—Weathersfield was ordered to furnish a hog for this army; Windfor a ram goat; and Hartford a

hoghead of beer, and four or five gallons of strong water†.

This was ancient simplicity!—Let us make a little estimation of the expenses annually incurred in Connecticut. (I say incurred, for we can contract debts, though we cannot pay them).

I will just make a distinction between necessary and unnecessary expenses.

	Necessary.			Unnecessary.		
	£.			£.		
Governor's salary, - - -	300			300		
Lt. governor's, - - -	100			100		
Upper house, attendance and travel, 60 days a year, at 10 <i>l.</i> a day, -	600			600		
Carried over, - - -	1,000			1,000		

NOTES.

* "Quid vides? mutato nomine, de te fabula narratur."—C.

† See the records of this state, where rum is called strong water.—This was soon after the first distilling of spiritus, and rum was not then named. It seems however that our pious ancestors had a taste for it, which their posterity have carefully improved.

Vol. V.

	£.	Necessary.	Unnecessary.
	£.	£.	£.
Brought over,	1,000	1,000	
Lower house, attendance and travel, 170 members at 6s. a day, 60 days,	3,060	1,530	1,530
Five judges of the superior court, at 24s. a day, suppose 150 days,	900	900	
Forty judges of inferior courts, at 9s. a day, suppose 40 days,	720	720	
Six thousand actions in the year, the legal expense of each suppose 3d.	18,000	1,000	17,000
Gratuities to 120 lawyers, suppose 50d. each,	6,000	1,000	5,000
Two hundred clergymen, at 100d. each,	20,000	20,000	
Five hundred schools, at 20d. a year,	10,000	10,000	
Support of poor,	10,000	10,000	
Bridges and other town expenses,	10,000	10,000	
Contingencies and articles not enumerated,	10,000	10,000	
	<u>£. 89,680</u>	<u>£. 66,150</u>	<u>£. 23,530</u>

Now comes RUM, my friends.

	£.
400,000 gallons of rum, at 4s. a gallon,	80,000
Allow for rum drank on which excise is not paid,	
50,000 gallons, at 4s.	10,000
	<u>90,000</u>

Ninety-nine hundredths unnecessary.

This is a fact—Deny it if you can, good folks. Now, say not a word about taxes, judges, lawyers, courts, and women's extravagance. Your government, your courts, your lawyers, your clergymen, your schools, and your poor, do not all cost you so much as one paltry article, which does you little or no good, but is as destructive of your lives as fire and brimstone.

But let us proceed.

A million of pounds of sugar, estimated by the returns of excise masters, at 8d.	83,333
(This is double the quantity we want, but as it is pernicious neither to health nor morals, I let it pass)	
200,000lb. of tea, at 3s. 6d.	35,000
2,000 ditto hyson, at 14s.	1,400
(Most of these unnecessary).	
Coffee, melasses, spices, &c.	10,000
Dry goods,	250,000

Total £. 329,733

The whole settlement will stand thus :

	£.
Necessary expenses,	66,150
Unnecessary, ditto,	23,530
Rum and other distilled spirits,	90,000
Other foreign articles,	329,733
	<u>510,413</u>

Interest of the federal and state debts,

130,000

Now, good people, I have a word of advice for you. I will tell you how to pay your taxes and debts, without feeling them.

1st. Fee no lawyers.

You say lawyers have too high fees. I say they have not. They cost me not one farthing. Do as I have always done, and lawyers' fees will be no trouble at all. If I want a new coat, or my wife wants a new gown, we have agreed to wear the old ones until we have got cash or produce to pay for them. When we buy—we pay in hand—we get things cheaper than our neighbours—merchants never dun us—and we have no lawyers' fees to pay. When we see sheriffs and duns knocking at the doors of our neighbours, we laugh at their folly. Besides I keep a little drawer in my desk, with money enough in it to pay the next tax; and I never touch a farthing until the collector calls. Now, good folks, if you will take

the same method, you will save out of lawyers' fees and court charges, on the most moderate calculations, 20,000l. a year.

2dly. I allow my family but two gallons of rum a year. This is enough for any family, and too much for most of them. I drink cyder and beer of my own manufacture: and my wife makes excellent beer, I assure you. I advise you all to do the same. I am astonished at you, good folks. Not a mechanic or a labourer goes to work for a merchant, but he carries home a bottle of rum. Not a load of wood comes to town, but a gallon bottle is tied to the cart stake to be filled with rum. Scarcely a woman comes to town with tow cloth, but she has a wooden gallon bottle in one side of her saddle bags, to fill with rum. A stranger would think you to be a nation of Indians by your thirst for this paltry liquor. Take a bit of advice from a good friend of yours. Get two gallons of rum in a year—have two or three frolics of innocent mirth—keep a little spirit for a medicine, and let your common drink be the produce or manufacture of this country. This will make a saving of almost 400,000 gallons of rum, or 80,000l. year.

3dly. Never buy any useless clothing.

Keep a good suit for Sundays and other public days, but let your common wearing apparel be good substantial cloths and linens of your own manufacture. Let your wives and daughters lay aside their plumes. Feathers and fripperies suit the Cherokees or the wench in your kitchen; but they little become the fair daughters of America*. Out of the dry goods imported, you may save 50,000l. a year.

These savings amount to 150,000l. a year. This is more than enough to pay the interest of all our public debts.

My countrymen, I am not trifling with you: I am serious. You feel the facts I state; you know you are poor, and ought to know, the fault is all your

NOTE.

* I would just mention to my fair friends, whom I love and esteem, that feathers and other frippery of the head, are disreputable in Europe.

own. Are you not satisfied with the food and drink which this country affords? The beef, the pork, the wheat, the corn, the butter, the cheese, the cyder, the beer, those luxuries which are heaped in profusion upon your tables? If not, you must expect to be poor. In vain do you wish for mines of gold and silver. A mine would be the greatest curse that could befall this country. There is gold and silver enough in the world, and if you have not enough of it, it is because you consume all you earn in useless food and drink. In vain do you wish to increase the quantity of cash by a mint, or by paper emissions.—Should it rain millions of joes into your chimnies, on your present system of expenses, you would still have no money. It would leave the country in streams. Trifle not with serious subjects, nor spend your breath in empty wishes. Reform—economise. This is the whole of your political duty. You may reason, speculate, complain, raise mobs, spend life in railing at congress and your rulers; but unless you import less than you export, unless you spend less than you earn, you will eternally be poor.

New Haven, Dec. 14, 1786.

Account of the insurrection in New Hampshire, in September, 1786.

IN the beginning of the year, 1785, the complaints of the unhappy people, who had contracted debts during the time of the too great plenty of money, induced the legislature to pass an act, making every species of property a tender, at an appraised value. It was soon, however, found from experience, that this answered no other purpose but to prevent a demand on the part of the creditors, and a neglect on the part of the debtors to discharge their just debts. The scarcity of money still remained a complaint; for as far as goods and real property were substituted, as a medium in commerce, so far specie, of course, ceased to circulate; and credit being thus injured, the money-holders turned the keys on that cash which might otherwise have been loaned to the needy.

In August, 1786, a convention of committees from about thirty towns assembled and agreed upon, and preferred to the general court, a long

petition, setting forth their grievances on account of the scarcity of money, and praying for an emission of paper bills of credit; in which there was no single trace of an idea of redemption, or any one attempt to give the currency a foundation; but the whole seems predicated on a supposition that the general court, by a mere act of legislation, by words and signs, could impute an intrinsic value on paper; which is equally absurd as it would be to suppose, that the legislature had the power of Midas, and could, from a single touch, turn stones and sticks into gold; their great object was, however, to have this paper a tender for all debts and taxes; and no plan is hinted, by which people were to get this money out of the treasury; but it rather seems that they expected the general court to apportion it among the people at large.

The legislature formed a plan for the emission of twenty thousand pounds, to be let out at four per cent. on land security, redeemable at a future period, carrying an interest at six per cent. and to be a tender in taxes for the internal support of the state, and for fees and salaries of the officers of the government. This plan was sent, as early as the fourteenth of September, to the several towns, to collect their minds upon the subject.

On the twentieth inst. at four o'clock in the afternoon, about four hundred men, on horse-back and on foot, entered the town of Exeter, where the general court were sitting; about fifty of them, or perhaps more, were armed with muskets, and the others with bludgeons; their principal leader appeared to be one Moses French, a farmer, of Hampstead, aided by one Coffin, a major of the militia, and two or three others; they attended military parade, and had a drum. After they had halted a while, they sent a paper into the house of representatives, who were convened in the meeting-house, demanding an answer to their former petition without delay; it was dated on Exeter Plain, and signed Moses French, moderator.

The house appointed a committee of three, to be joined by a committee from the senate, to take the matter into consideration. This vote the senate unanimously nonconcurrent—

Whereupon a conference took place, in the meeting-house, between the two branches of the legislature. The president (general Sullivan) being, ex officio, a senator, opened the matter, by giving publicly, in the hearing of the people, and as many of the mob as chose to attend, the reasons on which the senate nonconcurrent the vote of the house. He first considered the petition, and shewed, with great strength of reasoning, and very coolly, the extreme folly, as well as the very great injustice, of the prayer of their former petition: and also observed, that even if the measure was just and reasonable, the general court ought not to pay attention to it, merely from having the voice of thirty towns only, out of two hundred, in favour of it. He concluded, by saying, that if the voice of the whole state was for the measure, yet the legislature ought not to comply with it, while they were surrounded by an armed force. To do it, would be to betray the rights of the people, which they had all solemnly engaged to support; and that no consideration of personal danger should ever compel him to so flagrant a violation of the constitutional rights of the people, who had placed him in the chair of government.

As soon as this speech was made, the mob beat to arms, and surrounded the meeting-house, where the president, the senate, and the house remained; those of the mob who had muskets, were ordered to charge with balls, which command they instantly obeyed. The house proceeded to business as usual, without taking any kind of notice of the management at the doors. Centinels were placed at each door with fixed bayonets, and the whole legislature were prisoners. After sunset, the president attempted to come out, but was prevented by a firm column. He reasoned very coolly with them on the impropriety and fatal tendency of their conduct, and assured them that the force of the state would support the government; which they took leave to deny, with as much confidence as he asserted it. Thus all remained till the evening was quite dark; the minds of the sober part of the people began to rise at the indignity—while the mob clamoured, some,

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paper money—some, an equal distribution of property—some, the annihilation of debts—some, release of all taxes—and all clamoured against law and government. A drum was now heard at a distance, and a number of men huzzaing for government. The mob appeared frightened, and some of them began to run; the president told them he would prevent bloodshed, and walked through them, and the general court followed.

On this, the insurgents returned to another part of the town, and the legislature, who had, throughout the whole, acted with the most inimitable firmness and magnanimity, reassumed their business, and requested the president to call forth the power of the state to quell the rebellion. At eleven at night he issued his orders, and by sunrise the next morning, the militia were marching in, well armed, with military music, and other incidents to military movements. The major and brigadier generals of all the state, excepting one, whose great remoteness from the scene of action prevented him, assembled early in the morning: the gentlemen of the first rank and education, emulous to save a government for which they had done and suffered so much, appeared either on foot or on horseback, in order: and an enthusiasm, quite inexpressible by words, appeared through the whole. About ten o'clock, the president, attended by the general officers, followed by several companies, advanced towards the insurgents, who were drawn up at a tavern, in the outer part of the town. There was no conflict; the mob fled, and nothing was to be done but to pick up the prisoners. A number fled, and made a stand at a bridge. General Cilly soon came up with them, rushed in, and seized their leaders; one of whom ordered them to fire; but government appeared in such force, that they dared not to obey. About forty of them were made prisoners, and were sent to jail, to be tried for high treason—the rest fled to their lurking places. By this time there were more than two thousand men in arms, about three hundred of whom were horse; all ready to make any risque to preserve legal government, and the due execution of the laws. The sentiment was con-

stantly re-echoed, “How can we live without government, and shall we give ourselves up to a mob?” If the legislature appeared magnanimous the day before, a free government, the people’s government, now shone with unequalled splendor and glory.—

Exeter, Sept. 23, 1786.



An oration, delivered in the college of Philadelphia, before the united company of Philadelphia for promoting American manufactures. March 17th, 1777. By Robert Strettel Jones, esq. of Burlington county, P. 177.

ONE of the advantages expected, and that has been pointed out to you as certain, is, that by encouraging manufactures we should save a great sum of money among ourselves. This, gentlemen, is a truth we ought to be fully impressed with, and convinced of. Let us at the same time remember and ever hold the conviction nearest to our hearts, that any nation wholly supplied by another, may soon by the arts of ministerial influence in that other, be converted into slaves. This public-spirited company can take no offence, when I declare this observation levelled particularly at nations, with whom, heretofore, the people of this country had no connexion in trade. What may prove necessary for political purposes, we leave, with deference, to the ruling powers, who know that foreign aid may be obtained. We confine ourselves to the line of American manufactures, happy in our humbler sphere to attempt adding a mite to the public happiness; yet indulge an idea, that if America is to be wholly indebted to any foreign loom, we may be allowed to exclaim—adieu to the religion! farewell the liberties of our country! If, America, thou hast contended in fearful fight; shed in this righteous cause much kindred blood with a religious awe and veneration, sanctified by the revolution—the bloody waves of the Boyne—and the field of Culloden, for this unavailing object, how narrow will be the arches of thy triumph? how torrid and funereal the thickest chaplets of thy laurels? No, my fellow-citizens; in the present arduous conflict, let us prefer the coarsest,

the most homely garb wrought from our native fleece, to the finest, the most fantastic ornament that can be imported from the first fashion-shop in Europe.

Perhaps by some my capacity as a politician, may be called in question for these sentiments, which must, nevertheless, now, or at some future day, be adopted; or a boasted independence, and the novel constitution of Pennsylvania, so much extolled by its admirers, will prove at best but splendid trifles—the play-things of a day. However, be it so: rather would I be, and be thought to be, an honest American—jealous of his country's real welfare (in which all his enjoyments and expectations centre) than the first politician on the continent, if that character is to be obtained at the risk of subjecting this great, infant empire, after all her struggles and difficulties, to be disposed at the will and pleasure of any dancing, silken minister whatever.

Whether the present system for conducting our manufactures is best, and therefore to be continued, or not, you well deserve the public acknowledgments for your generous and disinterested labours. You have shewn by sufficient experiment in various articles, that they may be manufactured even to personal profit, and if the present exertions are crowned with success, you have laid the foundation of what must prove no inconsiderable part of the true riches, the real independence of our country: an increasing, extensive, and lasting benefit, to an opulent, free, and virtuous posterity.

When the business that we have executed is compared with that of capital European tradesmen, it may appear, indeed, small and insignificant: yet, for our encouragement, let us remember, that the greatest undertakings, such as have deservedly obtained the highest praise of history, and been the most beneficial to mankind, were once in their infancy as well as ours. The first exportation of flaxseed from this continent to Ireland is but a recent transaction: the whole amounting to a few bushels only—but how many hands have we seen busily employed to complete the orders that arrived for execution every autumn? Who foretold the great extent of business that would be occasioned by this one arti-

cle, or the constant spur it has proved to the industry of so many thousands? Who, then, that beholds manufactories erecting in humble decency, with modest hope and anxious expectation, shall presume to determine their failure or success? Surely no man of observation can be guilty of such rashness; as he well knows, that a happy conclusion often flows from a small, and sometimes even from a very unpromising beginning. The censure of the indolent, who will not be at the pains to examine, or the stare of ignorance, that cannot comprehend, are equally unworthy attention, and should by no means be suffered to frustrate, or impede for a moment, a scheme so promising of public utility. Nevertheless, far be it from me to attempt fixing every objector in one or the other of these classes; seeing it is from the objections of the candid, and the improvements of the judicious, whose assistance we solicit, that plans, formed by private men, ripen into maturity.

And now, gentlemen, indulge me in a fond idea—or rather let us all participate in the pleasurable thought, that the object of our particular attention at this time is but one rough solitary stone laid, the vast foundation of that grand superstructure of empire, elegance, and public happiness, that is to be erected in this American world. Empire and the arts have been long taking their western tour, and in all their progress have yet found no shore so suitable as this, upon which to fix their lasting residence. If we consider the various soils and climates of the country which we inhabit, capable to produce the fruits of every country; the long extent of ocean on our eastern border; the numerous and capacious rivers that open a door for the most extensive inland navigation; that it is a land of wheat and barley, of vines and honey, wherein we have hitherto eaten bread without scarceness—a land of iron—a good land—the prospect of its future magnificence must be allowed to rest upon a basis more solid than the fervor of an *amor patriæ*, or the reveries of an inflated imagination. And as society, or the art of making a people happy, has not yet acquired that refined polish, of which, perhaps,

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it is capable, may we not be allowed at least to hope that this noblest exertion of human wisdom, is reserved for us, and that we shall have the distinguished honour of opening to an admiring world the purest plan most happily executed? True religion, genuine liberty, and knowledge unobscured, have deigned to visit our distant strand—not long since the dreary mansion of idolatry and ignorance: these horrid forms, that ever reign together, are deposed, and we behold them every day retreating farther and farther westward, to the very extremity of our continent. That America, in the all-wise economy of heaven, is intended for no small theatre in the immensity of God's works, is plainly discoverable—but how greatly important? Who can tell? These gay settlements have arisen from uncultivated wilds with such amazing and unparalleled rapidity as to attract not only the wonder but the envy of the world. And are they now to stop? Have they arrived at maturity? Nay, rather, are they not yet only in the cradle—promising great stature, strength, and vigour?



A series of letters on the establishment of the worship of the Deity, as essential to national happiness. P. 89.

By an American.

*Piusque boni mores,
Quam bonae leges, valent. Tacitus.*

LETTER II.

Sir,

WHAT is said on the article of religious liberty, in most of the

NOTE.

* This oration is printed, excepting a few literary alterations which do not affect any sentiment it contained, as it was delivered: but this part cannot be dismissed without observing that it is most devoutly to be wished that this event may have now taken place, and that our incomparable federal plan of government may long continue a blessing to us and our posterity, which it will, so long as we and they are virtuous—shed its happy influence amongst the nations of the old world who once were free, and illuminate them to an adoption of their unalienable rights, so as to become men indeed.

constitutions of these states, I highly applaud; it is excellent so far as it goes*; it is a very good preamble to something which ought to have followed, and which may yet be adopted, which is, that public religion shall be maintained, and the support of it proportioned among all the members of the community; without this, public worship may be proscribed and totally banished from these states in half a century, or less.

At present the institutions of morality and religion are left floating on the uncertain sea of accidents, and may sink or swim without the notice of government. This neglect would be pardonable if good government could exist without the aid of religion. There never has been a nation great or happy, where the subject's obedience to human laws did not receive a sanction from the obligations of religion.

The conscious approbation which results from right conduct, and the dread of future punishment for evil, are powerful principles in the human breast: subjects, who feel the influence of these, are easily restrained within the bounds of human law; those who do not, have ever been found most difficult to govern, because influenced wholly by motives of present interest or advantage. Magistrates themselves have found, that as men cast off a regard for the Deity, the transition to evil courses, destructive to society, has been easy; they have also disregarded their civil rulers, and one another; for those who fear not God, neither will they regard man.

Then "the bold impious man,
Who stops at nothing, will seize all
he can:

Justice to merit, will weak aid afford,
Her balance fall'n, useless lies her
sword."

Dryden.

Hence all legislators have interwoven religion with their systems of law and government, and the greater part have probably so done purely from political considerations; and if, at the same time that they make religion necessary to the well-being of the commonwealth, they leave the subjects

NOTE.

* It amounts to this, that men have a right to choose their religion, and to worship where and how they please.

free in the choice and practice of their respective systems, they do wisely.

In the wise code of laws, which the illustrious legislator of the Hebrews received immediately from heaven, for the government of a nation, a reverence of the Deity is inscribed on the whole, as the efficacious motive of obedience to civil rulers. The God of nature has joined together these two—government and religion, or religious worship and social virtue; they cannot be put asunder. Government is supported by the influence which religion has on the minds and morals of mankind.

It is an observation of the celebrated historian Tacitus, that virtuous manners have more efficacy than good laws. The uniform experience of ages confirms it.

Religion may be established on principles consistent with perfect freedom. If it be an institution necessary to the existence or prosperity of government, the people by their rulers have a right to establish that as they do any other necessary or useful institution; and to provide for its support, as they do for the support of public schools for the education of youth. The institution of public worship is a school of virtue, for the benefit of subjects who have arrived to maturity, as common schools are for the benefit of subjects in their minority; both necessary, and equally claiming the attention and care of authority.

The christian religion, containing a system of morals and doctrines, infinitely more luminous and perfect than any other, is the professed religion of these states; a system most friendly to order and civil government: if the subjects are universally benefited by the public worship of the Deity, and by the doctrines of religion and morality, which are constantly taught by those who are devoted to that profession, why should not the subjects universally bear their proportion to their support? There are many in every state, who do nothing in this way, and yet reap the benefit of this institution, equally with those who do, considered as members of society; their lives—their property—and all their rights, are thereby rendered secure and inviolate.

After those habits which a good

education has formed, among the body of the people, are worn off, all such as treat public worship as superfluous, or the support of it a burden—and some of this class may already be found perhaps in every town, and without a preventative, it will not be long before they have the majority of votes;—all such will withdraw their aid from the support of public religion, and the teachers of it must be dependent on the voluntary subscriptions of the few, whose sense of its importance may excite them to laudable exertions to hold up the drooping cause of virtue. Such neglect of an institution, on which the existence, or the peace and happiness of civil society depend, will break down the barrier which guards the state, and pour in a flood of evils, which, in the final issue, will overwhelm both rulers and subjects. Righteousness exalteth a nation, but sin is the reproach, and, unrestrained by a sense of moral obligation, will bring upon a people desolation and ruin. From the steps leading to this catastrophe, may heaven preserve our dearest country!

(Letter III. in our next.)



Address of the managers of the Pennsylvania society for the encouragement of manufactures and the useful arts, to their constituents, on the expiration of the term of their appointment.

Gentlemen,

IN resigning into your hands the office you assigned to us, we think it right to lay before you some account of the general state of those interests you thought proper to commit to our attention.

It is with pleasure we inform you, that some new and important manufactures have been established with success; that others, which have been for some years past in a languid state, are now beginning to revive; and that daily experience brings to view, new powers and resources in this country, for the increase and promotion of these invaluable establishments. Upon the whole, we have reason to believe, that our manufactures in general are in the road to improvement and extension. The protection afforded by our legislature, the decrease in the unne-

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cessary consumption of foreign commodities and the reviving spirit of our manufactures, have not failed to produce a powerful effect; and these principles must operate with still greater force, when the interests of America shall be united under one common protecting head, and a due preference afforded thereby throughout all the states, to the productions of each other.

We have endeavoured, on our parts, to contribute to the progress of these objects by such measures as lay within our power. We have attempted by premiums and other methods to call the attention of the public, to those articles, which, although within reach of the resources of our country, had yet been unattempted by our manufacturers. We have laboured to excite a laudable emulation amongst persons whose manufactures have not yet been carried to perfection. We have endeavoured to procure and disseminate information, for the improvement of those branches, wherein such lights appeared to be wanting; and we have brought forward to public notice, those manufactures, which, although established here, had not yet received the attention and patronage of which they were deserving.

We have proceeded in these measures, under an earnest desire, that our endeavours should produce effects proportioned to your expectations, and to the magnitude of the interests committed to our care:—If our efforts have not been yet attended with success, correspondent to the utmost extent of our wishes, we have at least reason to be assured, they have not been unproductive of advantage.

Signed by order of the board,

Samuel Powel, vice-president.
Philadelphia, Jan. 21, 1789.



Remarks on the manners, government, laws and domestic debt of America.

AFUNDAMENTAL mistake of the Americans has been, that they considered the revolution as completed, when it was but just begun. Having laid the pillars of the building, they ceased to exert themselves, and seemed to forget that the whole superstructure was then to be erected.

VOL. V.

This country is independent in government; but totally dependent in manners, which are the basis of government. Men seem not to attend to the difference between Europe and America, in point of age and improvement, and are disposed to rush, with heedless emulation, into an imitation of manners, for which we are not prepared.

Every person tolerably well versed in history, knows that nations are often compared to individuals and to vegetables, in their progress from their origin to maturity and decay. The resemblance is striking and just. This progress is as certain in nations as in vegetables; it is as obvious, and its cause more easily understood—in proportion as the secret springs of action in government are more easily explained, than the mechanical principles of vegetation.

This progress, therefore, being assumed as a conceded fact, suggests a forcible argument against the introduction of European manners into America. The business of men in society is, first, to secure their persons and estates by arms and wholesome laws—then to procure the conveniences of life by arts and labour;—but it is in the last stages, only, of national improvement, that luxury and amusements become public benefits, by dissipating accumulations of wealth, and furnishing employment and food for the poor. And luxury, then, is not beneficial, except when the wealth of a nation is wasted within itself. It is perhaps always true, that an old civilized nation cannot, with propriety, be the model for an infant nation, either in morals, in manners or fashions, in literature, or in government.

A constant increase of wealth is ever followed with a multiplication of vices—this seems to be the destiny of human affairs; wisdom, therefore, directs us to retard, if possible, and not to accelerate the progress of corruption. But an introduction of the fashionable diversions of Europe into America, is an acceleration of the growth of vices, which are yet in their infancy, and an introduction of new ones too infamous to be mentioned. A dancing-school among the Tuscaroras, is not a greater absurdity, than a masquerade in America. A theatre, un-

der the best regulations, is not essential to our public or private happiness. It may afford entertainment to individuals; but it is at the expense of private taste and public morals. The great misfortune of all exhibitions of this kind is this; that they reduce all taste to a level. Not only the vices of all classes of people are brought into view, but of all ages and nations. The intrigues of noblemen and the scurrility of shoe-blacks, are presented to the view of both sexes of all ages; the vices of the age of Elizabeth and of Charles II. are recorded by the masterly pens of a Shakspeare and a Congreve, and, by repeated representation, they are "hung on high," as the poet expresses it, "to poison half mankind." The fact is, that all characters must be represented upon a theatre, because all characters are spectators; and a nobleman and a sailor, a dutchess and a washer-woman, that attend constantly on the exhibitions of vice, become equally depraved—their tastes will be nearly alike as to vice, the one is as prepared for a crime as the other. It is for this reason, that many of the amusements of nations more depraved than ourselves, are highly pernicious in this country. They carry us forward by hasty strides to the last stages of corruption; a period that every benevolent man will deprecate and endeavour to retard. This circumstance, the difference in the stages of our political existence, should make us shun the vices which may be fashionable in older states: and endeavour to preserve our manners, by being our own standards. By attaching ourselves to foreign manners, we counteract the good effects of the revolution; or rather render them incomplete. A revolution in the form of government, is but a revolution in name, unless attended with a change of principles and manners, which are the springs of government.

We are now in a situation to answer all the purposes of the European nations: independent in government, and dependent in manners. They give us their fashions, they direct our taste, to make a market for their commodities—they engross the profits of our industry, without the hazard of defending us, or the expense of support-

ing our civil government. A situation more favourable to their interest, or more repugnant to our own, they not could have chosen for us, nor we embraced.

If such is the state of facts, and if the influence of foreign manners does actually defeat the purposes of the revolution—if our implicit submission to the prevailing taste of European courts, involves individuals and the public in unnecessary expenses—it is in the power of a few influential characters, in each of our commercial cities, to remedy the whole evil. And in a reformation of this kind, the ladies would have no inconsiderable share.

It is really a matter of astonishment, that the pride of the Americans has so long submitted tamely to a foreign yoke. Aside of all regard to interest, we should expect that the idea of being a nation of apes, would mortify minds accustomed to freedom of thought, and would prompt them to spurn their chains.

Have the ladies of America no ingenuity, no taste? do they not understand what dresses are most convenient and elegant? what modes are best adapted to the climate, or other circumstances of this country? they must certainly do. Foreigners acknowledge that the native beauty and understanding of the American ladies are not excelled in any country, and equalled in very few: and one would imagine that the modes of embellishing so many personal charms ought not in all cases, to be prescribed by the milliners and mantua-makers on the other side of the Atlantic.

When the gentlemen in America shall exercise spirit enough to be their own judges of taste in dress—when they have wisdom to consult the circumstances of this country, and fortitude to retain a fashion as long as their own interest requires, instead of changing it when other nations direct—when the ladies shall exercise the right of their sex, and say, "we will give the laws of fashion to our own nation, instead of receiving them from another; we will perform our part of the revolution,"—when both sexes shall take more pride and pleasure in being their own standards, than in being the humble imitators of

those who riot on the profits of our commerce—we shall realize a new species of independence—an independence flattering to generous minds, and more productive of wealth, than all the laws of power, or the little arts of national policy. And in this revolution of manners, there needs not any sacrifice of real dress. I will venture to estimate, that the retrenching of superfluous articles, which constitute no part of dress, and serve but to disfigure an elegant person—articles that are made and sent to us, to support the six-penny day labourers of Europe—I say, a retrenching of those trifling articles only, would be an annual saving to America, sufficient to pay one half the interest of our federal debt. We can throw no blame on foreign nations; they are wise, and profit by our want of spirit and taste.

On the footing that all mankind are brethren, perhaps it is generous in us to assist foreigners, who are a part of the great family.

It is to be wished, however, that we might first discharge our honest debts: that the soldier, whose labour and blood have purchased our empire, and whose services have been paid with a shadow of reward, might be indemnified by the justice of his country: that the widow and orphan might at least receive the stipulated satisfaction for losses which money cannot repair. Yes, let us first be just, and then generous. When we have no better use for our superfluous property, then let us bestow it upon our wretched brethren of the human race. They will repay our charity with gratitude, and bless God that he has peopled one half the world with a race of freemen, to enrich the tyrants, and support the vassals of the other.

This same veneration for eminent foreigners, and the bewitching charms of fashion, have led the Americans to adopt the modern corruptions of our language. Very seldom have men examined the structure of the language, to find reasons for their practice. The pronunciation and use of words have been subject to the same arbitrary or accidental changes, as the shape of their garments. My lord wears a hat of a certain size and shape; he pro-

nounces a word in a certain manner; and both must be right, for he is a fashionable man. In Europe, this is right in dress; and men, who have not an opportunity of learning the just rules of our language, are in some degree excusable for imitating those whom they consider as superiors. But in men of science, this imitation can hardly be excused.

I presume we may safely say, that our language has suffered more injurious changes in America, since the British army landed on our shores, than it had suffered before, in the period of three centuries. The bucks and bloods tell us there is no proper standard in language; that it is all arbitrary. The assertion, however, serves but to shew their ignorance. There are, in the language itself, decisive reasons for preferring one pronunciation to another; and men of science should be acquainted with these reasons. But if there were none, and every thing rested on practice, we should never change a general practice without substantial reasons: no change should be introduced, which is not an obvious improvement.

But our leading characters seem to pay no regard to rules, or their former practice. To know and embrace every change made in Great Britain, whether right or wrong, is the extent of their enquiries, and the height of their ambition. It is to this deference we may ascribe the long catalogue of errors in pronunciation, and of false idioms which disfigure the language of our mighty fine speakers. And should this imitation continue, we shall be hurried down the stream of corruption, with older nations, and our language, with theirs, be lost in an ocean of perpetual changes. The only hope we can entertain is, that America, driven by the shock of a revolution, from the rapidity of the current, may glide along near the margin with a gentler stream, and sometimes be washed back by an eddy.

It is, perhaps, a fundamental principle of government, that men are influenced more by habit, than by any abstract ideas of right and wrong. Few people examine into the propriety of particular usages or laws: or if they examine, few indeed are capable of comprehending their propriety.

But every man knows what is a law or general practice, and he conforms to it, not because it is right or best, but because it has been the practice. It is for this reason that habits of obedience should not be disturbed. There are perhaps in every government, some laws and customs, which, when examined on theoretical principles, will be found unjust and even impolitic. But if the people acquiesce in those laws and customs, if they are attached to them by habit, it is wrong in the legislature to attempt an innovation which shall alarm their apprehensions. There are multitudes of absurdities practised in society, in which people are evidently happy. Arraign those absurdities before the tribunal of examination—people may be convinced of their impropriety—they may even be convinced that better schemes can be projected—and yet it might be impossible to unite their opinions so as to establish different maxims. On the other hand, there are many good institutions, in which, however, there may be theoretical faults, which, if called into public view and artfully represented, might shake the best government on earth.

(Remainder in our next.)

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Address of the New York society for the relief of distressed debtors.

THE benevolent and compassionate, who contribute upon any occasion to the relief of their fellow creatures, have a right to know how their charity has been disposed of by those whom they intrust with it;—and to enquire how far the purposes of their beneficence have been carried into effect.

For the satisfaction of such, and for the information of the public, the society present them with the following concise account of their transactions, from the first day of January, 1788, to the first day of January, 1789.

They have, during that period, contributed to the relief of one hundred and four persons confined in the jail of this city, by distributing to them the following articles: nineteen hundred and seventy pounds of bread, one thousand and sixty four pounds of beef, eight hundred and forty pounds of pork, fourteen bushels of

potatoes, four bushels of peas, three bushels and an half of Indian meal, one bushel and an half of samp, one bushel of beans, thirty-seven cabbages, six blankets, and thirty-six loads of wood. They have also, by some small advances, and by their friendly interference, procured the discharge of twenty-six prisoners from their confinement during that time. In pursuance of those objects, they have expended the sum of sixty-two pounds fourteen shillings and eleven-pence three farthings, including the value of sundry donations in specific articles.

Many are the calamities that attend us in every walk of life:—calamities that no sagacity can foresee, or vigilance elude;—and when these are aggravated and pressed home, by the rigors of imprisonment, they render the unfortunate sufferer a perfect object of compassion and relief. The alleviation of these calamities is the object this society have in view; and in which, through the smiles of providence, they have been in some measure successful; for this, they are in a great measure indebted to the beneficence of their fellow citizens—a beneficence for which they return them their most sincere and grateful acknowledgments, and which they request they will please to continue.

By order of the society,

M. ROGERS, Sec'y.

New-York, Feb. 13, 1789.

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The whole process of the silk-worm, from the egg to the cocoon; communicated to dr. John Morgan, physician, in Philadelphia, in two letters from messrs. Hare and Skinner, silk merchants in London, July 27, 1774, and February 24, 1775.—P. 169.

CHAP. II. *Of the cocoons.*

IT is almost a general rule, to wait six or seven days, after all the cocoons seem to be formed, before you take them off the boughs, in order to give the worms time to bring them to perfection. It is then proper, from that time, to give some air to the room in which you have kept them, in order to dissipate a considerable dampness, which the worms exhale on their mounting, (when they have not been well fed and kept, for when they

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have been properly nursed, this dampness is not to be found) and which is of great detriment to the cocoons, either by rotting them, rendering them soft, or covering them with spots.

The cocoons may be divided into two general classes, the white and the yellow; in the yellow, you meet with all the shades from a bright yellow, diminishing at last to white; some few are of a pale green. We reckon nine sorts of cocoons, viz.

1. The good cocoons are those which are brought to their perfection, strong and little, and not at all spotted.

2. The pointed cocoons are those, one of whose extremities rises up in a point. After having afforded a little silk, the point, which is the weaker part, breaks or tears, and it is impossible to continue winding that cocoon any longer, because, when the thread comes round to the hole, it is of consequence broke.

3. The cocolons are a little bigger than the other, yet they do not contain more silk, because the contexture is not so strong. In winding, they are to be separated from the rest, because they require to be wound in cooler water, otherwise they furze out in winding.

4. The dupions, or double cocoons, are so called, because they contain sometimes two, and sometimes three worms, which have jointly formed one single cocoon. They interlace their threads, for which reason they are to be kept asunder from the rest; they make the silk we call dupions.

5. The soufflons are cocoons very imperfect, whose contexture is loose, sometimes to that degree that they are transparent, and bear the same proportion to the others, as a gauze to a satin. These cannot be wound.

6. The perforated cocoons are so called, because they have a hole at one end, for which reason they also cannot be wound.

7. The calcined cocoons are those whose worm, after the formation of the cocoon, is attacked with a sickness which sometimes petrifies it, and at others reduces it to a fine white powder, without in the least endamaging the silk; on the contrary, these cocoons produce more silk than the others, because the worm is considerably lighter. They are to be distin-

guished by the noise the petrified worm makes when you shake the cocoon. In Piedmont, they sell for half as much again as the others. It is very rare to see a parcel of twenty-five pounds of them at a time; sixty-three pounds of these cocoons have produced one pound one ounce of fine silk, of five to six cocoons.

8. The good choquette consists in those cocoons whose worm dies, before he has brought it to its perfection. They are known by the worms sticking to one side of the cocoon, which is easily to be perceived, when, on shaking it, you do not hear the chrysalis rattle. These cocoons are of as fine silk as the others, but they are to be wound separately, because they are subject to furze out, and the silk has not so bright a colour, neither is it so strong and nervous.

9. The bad choquette is composed of defective cocoons, spotted or rotten. They wind many of these cocoons together. It makes a very foul bad quality silk, of a blackish colour.

11. To know whether a cocoon be good, or not, you must observe if it be firm and sound, or not, if it has a fine grain, and if the two ends are round and strong. The cocoons of a bright yellow yield more silk than the others, because they contain a greater quantity of gum; but the advantage accrues to the winder only, because all this gum is lost in the dyeing. For which reason, as well as for certain colours they take better, the pale silks are preferred, because, having less gum, they lose less in boiling.

In the number of cocoons that are bought, there ought to be neither soufflons, nor perforated cocoons; because the seller is obliged to keep them apart, and to sell them as such; notwithstanding which, you may always reckon on half profit of these sorts that remain with the others, and if to these you add the dupions and choquette, you may calculate them at ten per cent.

The cocoons of the mountains are better than those of the plain; there is a greater quantity of white amongst them. It is true they are not so large as those of the plain, but the worm, at the same time, is proportionably less. The reason of which is, that the air of the mountains being sharp-

er, the worm labours with greater vigour. They succeed, likewise, better in the dry plains than in the damp and marshy parts, because the leaf is more nourishing. Five or six days after the cocoon has been detached from the branches, it is your business to prevent the birth of the worm, which would, otherwise, pierce through the shell, and thereby render the cocoon useless. To prevent which, you must put your cocoons in long shallow baskets, and fill them up within an inch of the top. You then cover them with paper and a wrapper over that. These baskets are to be disposed in an oven, whose heat is as near as can be to that of an oven from which the bread is just drawn after being baked. After your cocoons have remained therein nearly an hour, you must draw them out, and to see whether all the worms are dead, draw out a dupion from the middle of your basket, and open it; if the worm be dead, you may conclude all the rest are so; because the texture of the dupion being stronger than that of the other cocoons, it is consequently less easy to be penetrated by the heat. You must observe to take it from the middle of the basket, because in that part the heat is least perceptible; after you have drawn your baskets from the oven, you must first cover each of them with a woollen blanket or rug, leaving the wrapper besides, and then you pile them one on the other. If your baking has succeeded, your woollen cover will be all over wet with a kind of dew, the thickness of your little finger. If there be less, it is a sign your cocoons have been too much or too little baked. If too much baked, the worm, being overdried, cannot transpire a humour he no longer contains, and your cocoon is then burnt. If not enough baked, the worm has not been sufficiently penetrated by the heat to distil the liquor he contains, and in that case is not dead.

You must let your baskets stand thus covered five or six hours, if possible, in order to keep in the heat, as this makes an end of stifling those worms, which might have avoided the first impression of the fire.

You are likewise to take great care to let your cocoons stand in the oven the time that is necessary; for if they

do not stand long enough, your worm is only stunned for a time, and will afterwards be revived. If, on the other hand, you leave them too long in the oven, you burn them. Many instances of these two cases are frequently to be met with.

It is a good sign when you see some of the butterflies spring out from among the cocoons which have been baked, because you may be certain they are not burnt. For if you would kill them all to the last worm, you would burn many cocoons which might be more exposed to the heat than that particular worm.

III. When you put your cocoons into the oven, you must be very careful in picking out all the spotted ones, otherwise they communicate their spots by the great perspiration occasioned in them by the heat. If you have a parcel of strong and another of weak cocoons, and you can only wind a part of them fresh (i. e. without baking) give the preference to the weak cocoons, and bake your strong ones, because the latter, containing more gum, support the baking much better, and suffer less than the weak ones.

As fast as the cocoons you buy, are brought in, put them in baskets, and expose them to the sun, if it shines, in case your oven be full, in order at least to stun the worm, and prevent his working, to pierce his cocoon, during that time.

It is very proper, likewise, that they be a little in the air before you put them into the oven; because the peasants bring them in baskets heaped one on the other, which heats them and renders them extremely soft, but the air brings them to their proper tone again.

Sometimes the peasants sell you the cocoons ready baked when they have been obliged to keep them sometime. It is easy to know them, because the worms when baked, being dry, make a louder noise on rattling them, than when they are fresh.

When your cocoons are fully baked, and have stood long enough, you must spread them half a foot thick on broad ozier shelves, which are distributed into as many stories as the height of the room will admit of, two or three feet distant one from the other; taking care to turn them

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every day, and to change their places ; many inconveniencies would arise from neglect of this. They would become mouldy, and the moths would eat them. Besides this, it is absolutely necessary, in order to separate the spotted cocons, or the bad choquette, which would spread to all the cocons that are near them, and must be wound immediately, to prevent their damaging any further.

The building, where you spread your cocons, is called the coconiere, and consists of one or more large rooms, in which are distributed as many ranges as you can conveniently place, taking care that the supporters touch neither the roof nor the wall, because, if there were any rats in the coconiere, they would come down the poles, and destroy the cocons, they being very greedy of the worm contained in them.

A middling cocon has about thirteen lines in its greater diameter, by eight lines the lesser diameter ; some are larger ; some are smaller ; but this is the general size. The dupion has generally fifteen lines great diameter, by nine lesser diameter.

The cocon is composed of several strata or surfaces applied one on the other ; notwithstanding which, they all communicate, otherwise it would be impossible to wind them off. It is an easy matter to take off one or more of these surfaces, the uppermost of which is coarser, less gummed, and higher coloured than the undermost. Finally, these surfaces are composed of a fine sort of saliva, whose texture has a tolerable resemblance to the thin skin you find joined to the inside of a hen's egg.

The cocons produce a thread of a very unequal length ; you may meet some that yield twelve hundred ells, whilst others will scarcely afford two hundred ells. In general, you may calculate the production of a cocon, from five hundred to six hundred ells in length.

IV. The worm or chrysalis, as he is enclosed in his cocon, is shrunk up into himself, so that he is but half as long in his primitive state, but is, on the contrary, as thick again.

He is of a cinnamon colour, and full of liquor, rather clear, which forms the semen in the males, and the eggs in the females. Though he seems

to be insensible in that state, yet you may perceive he is not wholly so, for on piercing him with a pin slightly, you will see him move, and we make use of these experiments to see if they have been killed in the oven.

The worm dries the older it grows, so that the same quantity, or the same number of cocons decreases daily in weight. The cocons which enclose the male butterfly, have more silk at the extremities, than those which contain the females ; but it is very difficult to perceive this difference ; the most skilful connoisseurs will mistake at least twenty in a hundred.

When the worm wants to break his way through, he pierces the cocon, first wetting it a little in order to gnaw it the more easily ; he has then only to strip off his upper coat, under which he has another, quite white, with wings.

When he comes out, his wings, which at first appear very small, open and display themselves by little and little, and are entirely at liberty in an hour or two. As soon as born, he seeks a female, and one would say he is born again merely to propagate his species, for he expires a very little time after having performed his function. [To be continued.]



Address of the legislature of Virginia, to congress, to call a convention for the purpose of considering the amendments proposed to the new constitution.

THE good people of this commonwealth in convention assembled, having ratified the constitution submitted to their consideration, this legislature has, in conformity to that act, and the resolutions of the united States in congress assembled, to them transmitted, thought proper to make the arrangements that were necessary, for carrying it into effect—having thus shewn themselves obedient to the voice of their constituents, all America will find, that, so far as it depended on them, that plan of government will be carried into immediate operation. But the sense of the people of Virginia would be but in part complied with, and but little regarded, if we went no farther. In the very moment of adoption, and coeval with the ratification of the new plan of go-

vernment, the general voice of the convention of this state, pointed to objects, no less interesting to the people we represent, and equally entitled to our attention. At the same time, that from motives of affection to our sister states, the convention yielded their assent to the ratification, they gave the most unequivocal proofs, that they dreaded its operation under the present form. In acceding to the government under this impression, painful must have been the prospect, had they not derived consolation from a full expectation of its imperfections being speedily amended. In this resource therefore they placed their confidence—a confidence, that will continue to support them, whilst they have reason to believe, they have not calculated upon it in vain. In making known to you, the objections of the people of this commonwealth, to the new plan of government, we deem it unnecessary to enter into a particular detail of its defects, which they consider as involving all the great and unalienable rights of freemen: for their sense on this subject, we refer you to the proceedings of the late convention, and the sense of the house of delegates, as expressed in their resolutions of the 30th of October, 1788. We think proper, however, to declare, that, in our opinion, as those objections were not founded in speculative theory, but deduced from principles, which have been established, by the melancholy example of other nations in different ages—So they will never be removed, until the cause itself shall cease to exist. The sooner, therefore, the public apprehensions are quieted, and the government is possessed of the confidence of the people, the more salutary will be its operations, and the longer its duration. The cause of amendments we consider as a common cause, and since concessions have been made from political motives, which we conceive may endanger the republic, we trust, that a commendable zeal will be shewn for obtaining those provisions, which experience has taught us, are necessary to secure from danger, the unalienable rights of human nature. The anxiety with which our countrymen press for the accomplishment of this important end, will all admit of de-

lay. The slow forms of congressional discussion and recommendation, if indeed they should ever agree to any change, would, we fear, be less certain of success. Happily for their wishes, the constitution hath presented an alternative, by admitting the submission to a convention of the states. To this, therefore, we resort, as the source from whence they are to derive relief from their present apprehensions. We do, therefore, in behalf of our constituents, in the most earnest and solemn manner, make this application to congress, that a convention be immediately called, of deputies from the several states, with full power to take into consideration the defects of this constitution that have been suggested by the state conventions, and report such amendments thereto, as they shall find best suited to promote our common interests, and secure to ourselves, and our latest posterity, the great and unalienable rights of mankind.

Signed by order and on behalf of the general assembly,

John Jones, S. S.

Thomas Mathews, S. H. D.

Nov. 20, 1788.



Circular letter from the legislature of Virginia, addressed to the legislatures of the other states.—Dated Nov. 20, 1788.

THE freemen of this commonwealth in convention assembled, having at the same time that they ratified the federal constitution, expressed a desire that many parts which they considered as exceptionable, should be amended, the general assembly, as well from a sense of their duty, as a conviction of its defects, have thought proper to take the earliest measure in their power, for the accomplishment of this important object. They have accordingly agreed upon an application to be presented to the congress, so soon as it shall be assembled, requesting that honourable body to call a convention of deputies from the several states, to take the same into their consideration, and report such amendments, as they shall find best calculated to answer the purpose. As we conceive that all the good people of the united states, are equally interest-

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ed in obtaining those amendments, that have been proposed, we trust that there will be an harmony in their sentiments and measures, upon this very interesting subject. We herewith transmit to you a copy of this application, and take the liberty to subjoin our earnest wishes that it may have your concurrence.

Signed by order and on behalf of the general assembly,

John Jones, S. S.

Thomas Mathews, S. H. D.

Resolution of the assembly of Pennsylvania, respelling the preceding circular letter.

RESOLVED, that his excellency the president be requested to assure his excellency governor Randolph, that, accustomed to sentiments of the highest respect and deference for the legislature of Virginia, it must ever be painful to the house, when obliged to dissent from the opinion of that assembly, upon any point of common concern to the two states, as members of the union; and particularly in a measure of such importance as the one now proposed, the calling of a convention of the states for amending the federal constitution—the necessity of which they are not able to discern, though it is so apparent to, and so earnestly insisted on by, that legislature.

That though it is possible this constitution may not be a system exempt, in all its parts, from errors, yet the house do not perceive it wanting in any of those fundamental principles, which are calculated to insure the liberties of their country.

As it is, they conceive the happiness of America and the harmony of the union, to depend altogether on suffering it to proceed, undisturbed in its operations by premature alterations, or amendments, which, however plausible they may be in theory, or necessary perhaps to the idea of a perfect form of government, experience alone can demonstrate whether they would be real improvements or not.

That under such forcible impressions, the house cannot, consistently with the special duty they owe to the good people of this state, or with the affection which in the enlarged spi-

rit of patriotism, they bear to the citizens of the united states at large, concur with the legislature of Virginia in their proposed application to congress for calling a convention of the states, for the above-mentioned purposes,

Philadelphia, March 3, 1789.

From the Federal Gazette.

Remarks on the amendments to the federal constitution, proposed by the conventions of Massachusetts, New-Hampshire, New York, Virginia, South and North Carolina, with the minorities of Pennsylvania and Maryland; by the rev. dr. Colton, D. D. and M. A. P. S.—P. 183

NUMBER III.

THE federal power of raising a revenue, is an object of general but various criticism. The minority of Pennsylvania propose, that "no taxes, except imposts, and duties upon goods imported and exported, and postage on letters, shall be levied by the authority of congress," add, 9. Whether they mean to grant duties on exportation, prohibited in the constitution, is not clear. Whatever may be the extent and merit of this amendment, I shall pass by it, as differing from all the rest.

The convention of New York insists, that "no capitation tax shall ever be laid by the congress," am. 13. The minority of Maryland means the same by the word poll-tax, am. 9 1 and that of Pennsylvania tacely condemns it among so many others. Capitation taxes are not indeed very eligible: when the degrees of opulence among a people are numerous and very unequal, they cannot be proportional and productive, without a troublesome, and in form measure arbitrary, assessment. They may, however, be occasionally used in America, because the great body of the people are in early circumstances, and few, comparatively, rich or poor; consequently, a general small capitation tax, of a dollar per annum, would not incommode even day labourers, yet amount to a considerable sum. It must also be remarked, that as the people at large have the important right of directly choosing the federal house of representatives, in which all money-bills must originate, it would be ungenerous to complain of a little

disproportion in a general personal tax: if a person in that case pays the same as his rich neighbour, he has also an equal vote with him; and this very tax forms a part of that federal revenue, by which not only property but liberty is protected.

The minority of Maryland request, that "all imposts and duties laid by congress shall be placed to the credit of the state in which the same may be collected, and shall be deducted out of such state's quota of the common or general expenses of government," am. 13. The meaning, though not clearly expressed, is, that all the expenses of the federal government should be apportioned among the states according to the census and number of representatives; and that all imposts and duties, by virtue of a general and uniform law of congress, collected in any state, shall be deducted out of such state's quota.

Virginia and North Carolina demand, that excises, like direct taxes, may be apportioned among the states "according to the census, nor collected by congress in such state as will pay its quota," am. 3.

The amendment of the above minority differs considerably from the two just mentioned; and all three are unsupported by any of the other conventions. I shall therefore leave them without a direct reply, as their impropriety will appear when we come to examine the system of federal revenue, adopted by the constitution. For the same reason, I barely take notice of the second amendment, proposed by the convention of New York, that "the congress do not impose any excise on any article, except ardent spirits, of the growth, production, or manufacture of the united states, or any of them."

The general request of amendments, when cleared of contradictory parts, is, that congress may not have recourse to direct taxes, but when the other sources of revenue are insufficient; nor then lay and levy any such, if the several states will in a reasonable time pay their quotas of the general requisition made according to the determined census. Their sense of the matter is thus respectively expressed; that "congress do not lay direct taxes, but when the monies a-

rising from the impost and excise are insufficient for the public exigencies; nor then, until congress shall have first made a requisition upon the states, to assess, levy, and pay their respective proportions of such requisition, agreeably to the census fixed in the said constitution, in such manner, as the legislatures of the states shall think best; and in such case, if any state shall neglect or refuse to pay its proportion, pursuant to such requisition, then congress may assess and levy such state's proportion, together with interest thereon, at the rate of six per cent. per annum, from the time of payment prescribed by such requisition," Massachusetts 4th am. New York 3d; New Hampshire 4th, with the variation—impost, excise, and their other resources; South Carolina 3d. in words nearly the same, with duties, imposts, and excise. "When congress shall lay direct taxes or excises, they shall immediately inform the executive power of each state, of the quota of such state, according to the census herein directed, which is proposed to be thereby raised; and if the legislature of any state shall pass a law, which shall be effectual for raising such quota, at the time required by congress, the taxes and excises laid by congress shall not be collected in such state"—Virginia and North Carolina 3d. "That in every law of congress imposing direct taxes, the collection thereof shall be suspended for a certain reasonable time, therein limited: and on payment of the sum by any state, by the time appointed, such taxes shall not be collected"—min. of Maryland, 3d. am.

It is then agreed, that congress may in some cases levy direct taxes, but not until a state neglects or refuses to pay its quota of the requisition. But why will any state neglect or refuse? Is it because the legislature disapproves of it? or because it cannot make the people comply with it? while the government of a state is popular, its rejecting a federal requisition, or neglecting to collect a tax laid in consequence of it, is a tacit but significant hint to the people not to pay; nay, I may almost say it is an express request, considering how well the opinions of a legislature are generally known by the public prints, and the free

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mingled conversation of all ranks in a republic. Can we suppose that after this, the assessors and collectors of congress will dare to shew their faces without being supported by a strong military force! If the legislature approves of a requisition from congress, it cannot well be odious to a majority of the people, considering what harmony of sentiment there must generally be between the represented and the representatives. Therefore a tax necessary and reasonable may certainly be enforced by the authority of the state government; if it is not done, such neglect must proceed from a wish of throwing the odium of the discontented on the congress. Let every friend to the union reflect, if the events in either case are favourable to federal sentiments!

The non-compliance with requisitions was an essential defect of the old constitution; and to mutilate the new government by them, is certainly very imprudent. They should, therefore, be left to the discretion of the united states in congress assembled, to be made use of or not, according to times and circumstances. As the stability and ease of government depend much on custom and habit, I think that the people should in all federal concerns be directly governed by federal laws; an unusual, though moderate exercise of legal authority, has often produced civil tumults.

The promises of interest of six per cent, on quotas of requisition not paid, and this from the time of payment prescribed by congress, held out by the conventions of Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New York, and South Carolina, are indeed very generous; but I sincerely wish that the defence of the union may never depend on them; generally a bad debtor pays neither an accumulated interest nor the principal.



NUMBER IV.

LET us now consider the restriction, that congress may not lay any direct taxes, until the other means of raising money are insufficient. The impost is generally regarded as a plentiful source of revenue; it must not, however, be estimated from the late inundation of European superfluities, but from the natural correspondence

of imports to exports; it will also, in a great measure, decrease with the desirable increase of home manufactures. This resource must, like all others, be used with some discretion.

First. The opportunity of smuggling is very great in America, from the vast extent of her coast, the length of so many bays and rivers, and the number of creeks and inlets which every where wind, for many miles, into the country; to guard all these avenues, against a host of bold and artful smugglers, would require the expense of a small navy. Very high imposts will certainly be powerful temptations to fraud, when local situation promises impunity; and nothing but the severest penalties could check the flattering hopes of making a fortune in such a speedy and easy manner. Numbers would be ruined every year; and smuggling, like many other dangerous trades, would still be very general. In Great Britain, bloody rencontres happen every week, between the officers of government and parties of smugglers; and cruel punishments are frequent: those scenes, so painful to humanity, would be seen in America, though every navigable water swarmed with armed vessels.

Secondly. An immoderate impost on several articles, which are in themselves good, and have become general luxuries, would not be agreeable to the nation—as tea, sugar, coffee, chocolate. It is only playing with words, to say that such duties cannot be too high, because they may be evaded; it is very hard either to lose a favourite enjoyment, or to purchase it by the money I want for other very useful things. Should congress raise a pound of common tea to forty shillings, they would injure many of their fair countrymen; and I doubt not but many of them would prefer a tax on the female tongue to such a duty on a darling luxury.

Thirdly. Too high an impost on articles which are necessary ingredients in American manufactures, would prejudice these, *f. e.* paints, steel springs, furniture of cabinet works, various tools of mechanics and artists. In some cases a valuable native commodity is highly ornamented by foreign articles of moderate price; excessive duties on these would then be

prejudicial, *f. e.* the lining, glass, &c. of carriages.

Fourthly. Imported goods of real value, which cannot at all, or with no advantage be produced in America, and which do not draw the necessary money from the channels of domestic industry, are not objects of a high duty, *f. e.* books in foreign languages, and several kinds of the finer manufactures.

The excise is another branch of the federal revenue: let us enquire how far this may be used. Excise, properly speaking, is a duty laid on commodities of home-produce and general home-consumption, which are not absolutely necessities of life. It is very convenient to the consumer, as he pays in piece-meal, and when he can best afford the expense; it may also be lessened by reducing the total consumption: if the excise on whisky, *f. e.* is high, a person may buy a quart at a time, and save so many gallons in the year. But with all these advantages, the excise will probably not be so generally and in the same degree practicable in America, as it is in European countries. First, It must be laid with a gentle hand on the materials of the most important domestic manufactures, or on commodities, which, by affecting them and workmen in other respects, may considerably raise their price. Secondly. Some eatables and drinkables, which, at least as to quantity, may be called luxuries, are yet generally regarded as necessities, and consequently are less proper objects of a productive excise, as beer, cyder, and butchers' meat. Thirdly. As the great body of the people live in the country, there is but little buying and selling of provisions, in comparison with manufacturing and mercantile countries, full of cities, towns, and villages; therefore the excise cannot profit by the vast home-produce and home-consumption of private families. Fourthly. It is doubtful how far the independent spirit of the Americans will, even in necessary cases, brook the troublesome and sometimes vexatious visits of excise-officers: at least, this circumstance will prevent any considerable excise within private families: besides, such modes of taxation would

make the requisite number of collectors very expensive.

The excise upon the materials and manufacture of home-made fermented and spiritous liquors, amounted in Great Britain for the year which ended on the 5th of July, 1775, to the amazing sum of three millions three hundred and forty-one thousand eight hundred and thirty-seven pounds nine shillings and nine-pence, sterling; though it does not extend to beer brewed and liquors distilled in private families*. Of this the tax on cyder produced only three thousand and eighty-three pounds six shillings and eight-pence†. In the united states, a sum proportional to the number of people could by no means be raised by this kind of excise. Beer is not yet of very general use, and wants encouragement: when it becomes a national drink, a great deal will probably be brewed in private country-families, as in the northern countries of Europe. The making of cyder will be altogether domestic, and by far the greater part consumed by the country people. The excise on ardent spirits will indeed be very beneficial, but not so productive as the convention of New York seem to think, by their wish to grant congress this alone; because an high duty will hopefully render the use of this pernicious luxury very moderate; and because the number and convenience of private stills will in a great measure elude the vigilance of the most active excisemen.

I observe again, how little the conventions agree about the extent of a federal excise. Virginia and North Carolina dislike it as much as direct taxes, *am. 3.* The minority of Maryland deem it worse, and call it an odious tax, in the conclusion of their address.

As for other duties, which do not come under the description of impost or excise, congress must also lay them with a discreet regard to a variety of circumstances. A duty on newspapers may hinder the general circulation of useful knowledge, and necess-

NOTES.

* Smith on the wealth of nations, vol. III. p. 361.

† 38. 365.

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sary political information. Duties on domestic articles of convenience and elegance, which at present are but in little demand, cannot be considerable without lessening still more the custom and profit of the respective mechanics, *f. e.* cabinet-makers, upholsterers, painters, silversmiths, &c. The various taxes on trinkets, ornaments, and amusements, which in most parts of Europe yield a great deal, will not in America do so, because of different manners, and less inequality of wealth.

It must then be pretty evident, that the federal revenue from impost, excise and other duties, may in many cases be very limited by necessary circumstances and prudential considerations; and consequently, it is very improper to force the congress into an immoderate pernicious use of these means, when direct taxes are more eligible: the convention of New Hampshire expressly forbids these, until all other resources are insufficient: that of Massachusetts and New York only mention the impost and excise; but then the last would only allow the excise on distilled liquors.

I shall not enter into a detail of direct taxes, to discuss when or how they may be used; but only endeavour to remove an ill-founded aversion against them by these observations.— Their being collected with certainty, ease and less expense, is a great advantage: in cases when they cannot be exactly proportioned to the revenue of individuals, this inequality will be less felt in America: they will be apportioned among the states in fixed quotas according to the census mentioned in the constitution.)

The general property of these taxes, that they cannot be evaded, is perhaps what most displeases individuals. But if we must pay taxes in one shape or another, and all upon the whole pay nearly their proportional part of the public expense, this reason is in a great measure visionary. It must also be remarked that some kinds of direct taxes are inevitable only in certain civil transactions, consequently only temporary, and then in many cases proportionable to the value of the deeds.

NUMBER V.

IT remains to prove, that a discretionary power to make use of direct taxation, will enable congress to

do justice to the respective states, by dividing the total federal expense among them in the most equitable manner that is practicable. The new federal government is in some degree national, and its energy depends on this very quality, as I observed in the second number. Accordingly the federal revenue is partly raised from individuals, and partly from the states. What is collected in the first way, goes into the federal treasury without any enquiry how much was gathered in this or that state. What is obtained in the second mode by direct taxes, whether by requisition or otherwise, is placed to the credit of the respective states; so that if any state pays more or less than its quota, determined by the number of representatives, it draws back the surplus, or makes up the deficiency. The great object of the union, which nearly concerns every individual, is defence against foreign and internal enemies. On this depend greatly all the enjoyments of domestic and civil life. Perpetual peace, or protection in case of an inevitable war, is merely with regard to property, an eminent blessing, which every wise man would gladly purchase by six per cent. of all his yearly revenue. In this view, every federal citizen will cheerfully, by a direct personal contribution, support that federal government by which alone he can be protected. The various modes of impost, excise, and other duties, will also, if well contrived, affect individuals in a pretty equitable proportion. Those who buy foreign articles of luxury, on which the impost is high, are comparatively rich. They pay also a sort of fine for sending their money abroad, when they might benefit their fellow-citizens by a domestic expenditure. Great consumers of domestic luxuries are also more wealthy than others who must be contented with necessaries: if those commodities are noxious by excess, as spiritous liquors, or otherwise less useful to the community, the higher excise operates likewise as a satisfaction for what in some degree is wrong. The same reasoning is applicable to other duties.

By these means, the wealthier part of the federal citizens throughout the continent pay more than an equal

number of others; and so far as any state has a proportionably greater number of those, it contributes more than a less wealthy sister state. This is also reasonable, because the defence of the confederacy depends not only on property, but on the number of fighting men, which may be equal in less opulent states; and because these have less property to defend.

But on the other hand, it may also be equitable, that the states should pay a part of the federal revenue by quotas proportioned to the number of people; a standard preferable to extent of territory, or any other valuation of property. First, the wealth of a state cannot, without some limitation and exception, be estimated by its quota of the impost, excise, and other duties. The united states are all agricultural: some are also in a higher degree commercial and manufacturing; and these consume articles that pay duties much beyond their proportion of real wealth. Compare a tradesman in Philadelphia with a farmer in some remote county, who upon the whole makes an equal annual expence. The one buys almost every thing, the other very little. As to foreign goods, the citizen really wants several things for his trade: he makes more use of those articles of dress, which, at least at present, must be imported, because the general ideas of decency forbid a reputable person to appear in a croud with a ragged coat or in too light a dishabille: he sups and breakfasts on tea, coffee, or chocolate, partly because mush and milk, &c. would cost nearly as much, and partly from custom, which, though perhaps blameable, yet cannot soon be laid aside, and certainly is not an object of an immoderate impost, that would be a real penalty. If an excise is laid on beer, cyder, meat, and other native commodities, it falls much heavier on the citizen, than on the farmer; who, tho' he may pay a part of it on what he sells, by the consequential fall of the price, yet pays nothing for the great consumption of his family. Drawing this comparison on the great scale of cities and counties, we see clearly that a state of landed wealth contributes below its proportion in the impost, excise, and some other duties.

Secondly. As by the constitution,

all duties, imposts, and excises must be uniform through the united states, and as commodities but little used in one state may be of general use in another, this condition, though very equitable, will yet limit this resource of congress, by obliging them to select such duties, imposts, and excises, as jointly may produce the most equitable contribution. If these are not sufficient, it is much better to employ direct taxes, than by straining the others, to lay the burden very unequal. Without going into a detail, this reasoning seems well founded on the known difference of the states in climate, productions and manners.

A perfect system of taxation is a work of the greatest difficulty in any country, because an hundred different things are so interwoven, as to act and re-act upon each other in all directions, and with degrees of force that elude all nice calculation. This difficulty is increased in the federal system, partly from its double action on individuals, and on the states; and partly from the novel and unsettled finance of the united states. But this system is formed on great and reciprocal concessions between the sister states for the common welfare, and it grants the congress this great variety of resources, in order to choose those which are most equitable and beneficial. By a proper management, the resources of an extensive and fertile country, are amply sufficient to all the exigencies of the union and of the states. The same persons who, as members of congress, lay federal taxes, have, as individuals and citizens of the respective states, great and permanent interests to guard. It is therefore an excellent quality in the federal system of revenue, that it can be lightened or loosened, so as to embrace every part, and not press hard upon any one. At the same time, this very quality requires a disinterestedness, equity, mildness and generosity, from all the parties concerned, without which it would be a source of constant embarrassment. May then the federal people be good and wise! If by an effectual, yet easy revenue, national independence, liberty, and property can be secured, how unreasonable must it be, to dispute about paying a trifle more or less.

Philadelphia, Nov. 4, 1788.

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An act of the state of Franklin, for support of the civil list.

WHEREAS the collecting of taxes in specie, for the want of a circulating medium, has become very oppressive to the good people of this commonwealth. And whereas, it is the duty of the legislature to hear at all times the prayers of their constituents, and apply as speedy a remedy as lies in their power. Be it enacted by the general assembly of the state of Franklin, and it is hereby enacted by the authority of the same, that from the first day of January, anno Domini 1789, the salaries of the civil officers of this commonwealth be as follow, to wit :

His excellency the governor, per ann. one thousand deer skins. His honour the chief justice, five hundred ditto. The attorney general five hundred ditto ditto. Secretary to his excellency the governor, five hundred racoon ditto. The treasurer of the state, four hundred and fifty otter ditto. Each county clerk, three hundred beaver ditto. Clerk of the house of commons, two hundred racoon ditto. Members of assembly per diem, three ditto ditto. Justice's fee for signing a warrant, one muskrat ditto. To the constable for serving a warrant, one mink ditto. Enacted into a law, this 15th day of October, 1788, under the great seal of the state, witness his excellency John Sevier, governor, captain-general, commander in chief and admiral, in and over said state. Attest E. TRIPLET, C. H. A.

An act of the commonwealth of Virginia to prevent the importation of convicts. Passed the 13th of November, 1788.

WHEREAS it hath been represented to this general assembly, by the united states in congress, that a practice has prevailed for some time past, of importing felons convict into this state, under various pretences, which said felons convict, so imported, have been sold and dispersed among the people of this state, whereby much injury hath been done to the morals as well as the health of our fellow-citizens : For remedy whereof, be it enacted, That from and after the first day of January next, no captain or master of any vessel, or any other person, com-

ing into this commonwealth, by land or water, shall import or bring with him any person who shall have been a felon convict, or under sentence of death, or any other legal disability incurred by a criminal prosecution, or who shall be delivered to him from any prison or place of confinement, in any place out of the united states.

And be it further enacted, That every captain or master of a vessel, or any other person, who shall presume to import, or bring into this commonwealth, by land or by water, or shall sell or offer for sale, any such person as above described, shall suffer three months imprisonment, without bail or mainprize, and forfeit and pay for every such person so brought and imported, or sold or offered for sale, the penalty of fifty pounds current money of Virginia, one-half to the commonwealth, and the other half to the person who shall give information thereof; which said penalty shall be recovered by action of debt, or information, in any court of record, in which the defendant shall be ruled to give special bail.

An act of the commonwealth of Virginia for the punishment of the crime of bigamy. Passed the 18th of December, 1788.

WHEREAS it hath been doubted, whether bigamy or polygamy be punishable by the laws of this commonwealth: Be it enacted by the general assembly, that if any person or persons, within this commonwealth, being married, or who shall hereafter marry, do at any time after the first day of February, which shall be in the year of our Lord, one thousand seven hundred and eighty-nine, marry any person or persons, the former husband or wife being alive, that then every such offence shall be felony, and the person or persons so offending, shall suffer death as in cases of felony: and the party or parties so offending, shall receive such and like proceeding, trial, and execution, within this commonwealth, as if the offence had been committed in the county where such person or persons shall be taken or apprehended. Provided, that nothing herein contained shall extend to any person or

persons whose husband or wife shall be continually remaining beyond the seas by the space of seven years together, or whose husband or wife shall absent him or herself, the one from the other, by the space of seven years together, in any part of the united states of America or elsewhere, the one of them not knowing the other to be living within that time. Provided, also, that nothing herein contained shall extend to any person or persons, that are, or shall be, at the time of such marriage, divorced by lawful authority; or to any person or persons, where the former marriage hath been or hereafter shall be by lawful authority, declared to be void, and of no effect; nor to any person or persons, for or by reason of any marriage had or made, or hereafter to be had or made, within age of consent: provided, also, that no attainer for the offence made felony by this act, shall make or work any corruption of blood, or forfeiture of estate whatsoever.

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As an act of the legislature of New-York, to prevent the odious practice of digging up, and removing, for the purpose of dissection, dead bodies interred in cemeteries or burial places. Passed the 6th of January 1789.

WHEREAS the digging up dead bodies, interred in cemeteries and burial places within this state, and removing them for the purpose of dissection, has occasioned great discontent to many of the inhabitants of this state, and in some instances, disturbed the public peace and tranquility: to prevent such odious practices in future,

Be it enacted by the people of the state of New-York, represented in senate and assembly, and it is hereby enacted by the authority of the same, That any person, who shall at any time hereafter, for the purpose of dissection, or with intent to dissect, dig up, remove, or carry away, or be aiding and assisting in digging up, removing, or carrying away, any dead human body, which shall have been interred in any cemetery or burial place within this state; or shall dissect, or aid, or abet or assist in dissecting such human body, and shall be convicted of any of the said offences in the supreme

court, or in any court of oyer and terminer, jail delivery, or court of general sessions of the peace, shall be adjudged to stand in the pillory, or suffer other corporal punishment, not extending to life or limb, and shall also pay such fine, and suffer such imprisonment, as the court, before whom such conviction was held, shall in their discretion think proper to direct. And in order that science may not in this respect be injured by preventing the dissection of proper subjects,

Be it further enacted by the authority aforesaid, That the justices of the supreme court or any court of oyer and terminer, or jail delivery, in this state, from time to time, when any offender shall be convicted before them, or either of them, of murder, arson, or burglary, for which he or she shall be sentenced to suffer death, may, at their discretion, add to the judgment, that the body of such offender shall be delivered to a surgeon for dissection, and the sheriff, who is to cause such sentence to be executed, shall accordingly deliver the body of such offender, after execution done, to such surgeon as such court shall direct, for the purpose aforesaid; provided always, that such surgeon, or some other person by him appointed for the purpose, shall attend to receive and take away the dead body at the time of the execution of such offender.

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Description of the new city of Athens.
THIS city is intended to be laid out at the confluence of those two majestic rivers, the Mississippi and Missouri, between the 38th and 39th degree of north latitude, on perhaps the most desirable spot in the known world. Scarcely any place, indeed, can boast such numerous favours conferred on it by the liberal hand of nature—a climate equal to that of Montpellier itself—a soil where almost every thing grows spontaneously, and in its fertility, the curse inflicted on Adam, “thou shalt eat thy bread with the sweat of thy brow,” is almost forgotten. On the one hand comes down with swelling pride, the crystal current of the Mississippi, bearing in its bounteous bosom, an infinite variety of the finny race, in the greatest abundance, to please the pampered palate of the epicure, or supply the

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fragal table of the industrious citizen. On the other, the rapid torrent of the Missouri rolls along with course impetuous, lashing its flowery margin with its surge, and bearing on its foaming surface vast quantities of the most excellent peltry, furs of all kinds superior to any that Russia ever furnished, which will one day bring more wealth into the coffers of the merchant, than the mines of Peru or Mexico to the Spanish monarch. The face of the country is covered with the most useful kinds of trees, shrubs, plants, and vegetables; corn, wine and oil are on its hills, and milk and honey in its valleys.

On a rising ground, about a mile to the northwest of the city, out of the middle of a beautiful grove of cypress, issues a spring, whose water produces, when evaporated, an immensity of salt, equal in quality to any ever made. Fresh water in abundance, from an adjoining eminence can be conveyed into the city; stone coal and other fuel is as easily attainable; mines of lead, iron, and copper, and quarries of excellent free stone and marble are to be met in the course of ten miles on the western bank of the Missouri, and can be conveyed in one hour to the heart of the city.

The point of land, extending beyond the regular plan of the town, towards the river, is superlatively beautiful; courts the fostering hand of improvement, and promises to excel, in elegance and taste, the boasted gardens of the great Semiramis. At the very point will be erected a building denominated Fort Solon, after the great Athenian lawgiver; not for the defence of Athens (its rivers, and the harmony subsisting between his most catholic majesty and the surrounding tribes of friendly Indians being a sufficient bulwark) but for the retirement of the governor from the busy scenes of public employment.

The rapidity of the Missouri appears at the junction, at the point off Fort Solon, to spurn at the gentle current of its sister river, and force it to the opposite bank; the water of the Mississippi is rendered apparently stagnant for a considerable distance above the town, by which means trader boats, of all dimensions, can lie along the wharfs, without any dan-

ger from the current, to be loaded with the varied produce of the western world, ready to be wafted through the free tide of Mississippi's stream to the most distant ports. The luxuries of both the Indies—all that Europe or any other quarter of the globe affords that is desirable, will, through this channel, find their way to Athens. Through the beneficent disposition of the Spanish monarch, every religious sect will there find refuge, protection, and even encouragement; under his auspices, the arts will flourish as in Athens of old; large premiums to every operator in the various branches of mechanics will be given, nor will the useful hand of the husbandman be without its reward, as the farmer will be accommodated with a sufficiency of land at a proper distance.

A certain portion of the city will be adapted for religious and other public uses, and a part reserved for the particular disposal of the governor; the remainder will be given to settlers, a town lot and five acres without the city to every master of a family, and stone, timber, lime, and other building materials furnished at the public expense. The advantage of settling early is in this instance obvious, as the first applicant has his first choice, and though every foot is desirable, yet undoubtedly some must have the pre-eminence.

N. B. It is apprehended that printed proposals will be dispersed through the country early in the spring, and a time for commencing the operations appointed. The arrival of the governor from Old Spain is all that is now necessary.

Again shall Athens bid her columns

rise,
Again her lofty turrets reach the skies,
Science again shall find a safe retreat,
And commerce here as in a centre meet.

Translated from the Spanish by Don Henrique Ignatius Ferdinandus Culpes, secretary.

Albany plan of union. P. 194.
New edition.

THAT there shall be a new election of the members of the grand council every three years; and on the death or resignation of any member,

his place shall be supplied by a new choice, at the next sitting of the assembly of the colony he represented.*

Proportion of members after the first three years.

That after the first three years, when the proportion of money arising out of each colony to the general treasury can be known, the number of members to be chosen for each colony shall, from time to time, in all ensuing elections, be regulated by that proportion (yet so as that the number to be chosen by any one province be not more than seven, nor less than two.)†

Meetings of the grand council, and call.

That the grand council shall meet once in every year, and oftener if oc-

NOTES.

* Some colonies have annual assemblies, some continue during a governor's pleasure; three years was thought a reasonable medium, as affording a new member time to improve himself in the business, and to act after such improvement; and yet giving opportunities, frequent enough, to change him, if he has misbehaved.

† By a subsequent article, it is proposed, that the general council shall lay and levy such general duties as to them may appear most equal and least burdensome, &c. Suppose, for instance, they lay a small duty or excise on some commodity imported into or made in the colonies, and pretty generally and equally used in all of them; as rum, perhaps, or wine: the yearly produce of this duty or excise, if fairly collected, would be in some colonies greater, in others less, as the colonies are greater or smaller. When the collectors' accounts are brought in, the proportions will appear; and from them it is proposed to regulate the proportion of representatives to be chosen at the next general election, within the limits, however, of seven and two. These numbers may, therefore, vary in course of years, as the colonies may in the growth and increase of people. And thus the quota of tax from each colony would naturally vary with its circumstances: thereby preventing all disputes and dissatisfactions about the

casion require, at such time and place as they shall adjourn to, at the last preceding meeting, or as they shall be called to meet at, by the president general, on any emergency; he having first obtained in writing the consent of seven of the members to such call, and sent due and timely notice to the whole.‡

Continuance.

That the grand council have power to choose their speaker: and shall neither be dissolved, prorogued, nor continued sitting longer than six weeks at one time; without their own consent, or the special command of the crown.||

NOTES.

just proportions due from each; which might otherwise produce pernicious consequences, and destroy the harmony and good agreement that ought to subsist between the several parts of the union.

‡ It was thought, in establishing and governing new colonies or settlements, regulating Indian trade, Indian treaties, &c. there would every year sufficient business arise to require at least one meeting, and at such meeting many things might be suggested for the benefit of all the colonies. This annual meeting may be either at a time or place certain, to be fixed by the president general and grand council at their first meeting; or left at liberty, to be at such time and place as they shall adjourn to, or be called to meet at by the president general.

In time of war, it seems convenient, that the meetings should be in that colony, which is nearest the seat of action.

The power of calling them on any emergency, seemed necessary to be vested in the president general; but that such power might not be wantonly used to harass the members, and oblige them to make frequent long journeys to little purpose, the consent of seven at least to such call was supposed a convenient guard.

|| The speaker should be presented for approbation; it being convenient, to prevent misunderstandings and disputes, that the mouth of the council should be a person agreeable, if possible, both to the council and president general.

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Members' allowance.

That the members of the grand council shall be allowed for their services ten shillings sterling per diem, during their session and journey to and from the place of meeting; twenty miles to be reckoned a day's journey.*

Affent of president general, and his duty.

That the assent of the president general be requisite to all acts of the grand council; and that it be his office and duty to cause them to be carried into execution.†

Power of president general and grand council. Treaties of peace and war.

That the president general, with the advice of the grand council, hold or direct all Indian treaties in which the general interest of the colonies may be

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only exercised the power of proroguing or continuing the sessions of assemblies, merely to harass the members and compel a compliance; and sometimes dissolve them on slight disquiets. This, it was feared, might be done by the president general, if not provided against: and the inconvenience and hardship would be greater in the general government than in particular colonies, in proportion to the distance the members must be from home, during sittings, and the long journeys some of them must necessarily take.

* It was thought proper to allow some wages, lest the expense might deter some suitable persons from the service;—and not to allow too great wages, lest unsuitable persons should be tempted to cabal for the employment, for the sake of gain—Twenty miles were set down as a day's journey, to allow for accidental hindrances on the road, and the greater expenses of travelling, than residing at the place of meeting.

† The assent of the president general to all acts of the grand council was made necessary, in order to give the crown its due share of influence in this government, and connect it with that of Great Britain. The president general, besides one half of the legislative power, hath in his hands the whole executive power.

concerned; and make peace or declare war with Indian nations. ||

Indian trade.

That they make such laws as they judge necessary for regulating all Indian trade. §

Indian purchases.

That they make all purchases from Indians for the crown, of lands not now within the bounds of particular colonies, or that shall not be within their bounds when some of them are reduced to more convenient dimensions. ‡

(Remainder in our next.)

NOTES.

|| The power of making peace or war with Indian nations is at present supposed to be in every colony, and is expressly granted to some by charter, so that no new power is hereby intended to be granted to the colonies.—But as, in consequence of this power, one colony might make peace with a nation that another was justly engaged in war with; or make war on slight occasions, without the concurrence or approbation of neighbouring colonies, greatly endangered by it; or make particular treaties of neutrality, in case of a general war, to their own private advantage in trade, by supplying the common enemy; of all which there have been instances—it was thought better to have all treaties of a general nature under a general direction; that so the good of the whole may be consulted and provided for.

§ Many quarrels and wars have arisen between the colonies and Indian nations, through the bad conduct of traders; who cheat the Indians after making them drunk, &c. to the great expense of the colonies, both in blood and treasure. Particular colonies are so interested in the trade as not to be willing to admit such a regulation as might be best for the whole; and therefore it was thought best under a general direction.

‡ Purchases from the Indians made by private persons, have been attended with many inconveniences. They have frequently interfered, and occasioned uncertainty of titles, many disputes and expensive law-suits, and hindered the settlement of the land so disputed. Then the Indians have been cheated by such private pur-

Address of the twelve united colonies, by their delegates in congress, to the inhabitants of Great-Britain.

Friends, countrymen, and brethren!

BY these, and by every other appellation, that may designate the ties, which bind us to each other, we intreat your serious attention to this our second attempt, to prevent their dissolution. Remembrance of former friendships—pride in the glorious achievements of our common ancestors—and affection for the heirs of their virtues, have hitherto preserved our mutual connexion. But when that friendship is violated by the grossest injuries—when the pride of ancestry becomes our reproach, and we are no otherwise allied than as tyrants and slaves—when reduced to the melancholy alternative of renouncing your favour, or our freedom, can we hesitate about the choice? Let the spirit of Britons determine.

In a former address, we asserted our rights, and stated the injuries we had then received. We hoped, that the mention of our wrongs, would have roused that honest indignation, which has slept too long for your honour, or the welfare of the empire. But we have not been permitted to entertain this pleasing expectation; every day

NOTE.

chafes, and discontent and wars have been the consequence. These would be prevented by public fair purchases.

Several of the colony charters in America extend their bounds to the South Sea, which may be perhaps three or four thousand miles in length to one or two hundred in breadth. It is supposed they must in time be reduced to dimensions more convenient for the common purposes of government.

Very little of the land in those grants, is yet purchased of the Indians.

It is much cheaper to purchase of them, than to take and maintain the possession by force: for they are generally very reasonable in their demands for land; and the expense of guarding a large frontier against their incursions, is vastly great; because all must be guarded and always guarded, as we know not where or when to expect them.

brought an accumulation of injuries, and the invention of the ministry has been constantly exercised, in adding to the calamities of your American brethren.

After the most valuable right of legislation was infringed—when the powers, assumed by your parliament, in which we are not represented, and, from our local and other circumstances, cannot properly be represented, rendered our property precarious—after being denied that mode of trial, to which we have so long been indebted for the safety of our persons, and the preservation of our liberties—after being in many instances divested of those laws, which were transmitted to us, by our common ancestors, and subjected to an arbitrary code, compiled under the auspices of Roman tyrants—after annulling those charters, which encouraged our predecessors to brave death and danger in every shape, on unknown seas, in desarts unexplored, amidst barbarous and inhospitable nations—when, without the form of trial, without a public accusation, whole colonies were condemned, their trade destroyed, their inhabitants impoverished—when soldiers were encouraged to imbrue their hands in the blood of Americans, by offers of impunity—when new modes of trial were instituted for the ruin of the accused, where the charge carried with it the horrors of conviction—when a despotic government was established in a neighbouring province, and its limits extended to every of our frontiers—we little imagined that any thing could be added to this black catalogue of unprovoked injuries; but we have unhappily been deceived; and the late measures of the British ministry fully convince us, that their object is the reduction of these colonies to slavery and ruin.

To confirm this assertion, let us recall your attention to the affairs of America, since our last address; let us combat the calumnies of our enemies, and let us warn you of the dangers that threaten you, in our destruction. Many of your fellow-subjects, whose situation deprived them of other support, drew their maintenance from the sea; but the deprivation of our liberty being insufficient to satisfy the resentment of our enemies, the

horrors of famine were superadded, and a British parliament, who, in better times, were the protectors of innocence and the patrons of humanity, have, without distinction of age or sex, robbed thousands of the food, which they were accustomed to draw from that inexhaustible source, placed in their neighbourhood by the benevolent Creator.

Another act of your legislature shuts our ports, and prohibits our trade with any but those states, from whom the great law of self-preservation renders it absolutely necessary we should at present withhold our commerce. But this act (whatever may have been its design) we consider rather as injurious to your opulence, than our interest. All our commerce terminates with you; and the wealth we procure from other nations, is soon exchanged for your superfluities. Our remittances must then cease with our trade; and our refinements, with our affluence. We trust, however, that laws, which deprive us of every blessing, but a foil that teems with the necessities of life, and that liberty which renders the enjoyment of them secure, will not relax our vigour in their defence.

We might here observe on the cruelty and inconsistency of those, who, while they publicly brand us with reproachful and unworthy epithets, endeavour to deprive us of the means of defence, by their interposition with foreign powers, and to deliver us to the lawless ravages of a merciless soldiery. But happily we are not without resources; and though the timid and humiliating applications of a British ministry should prevail with foreign nations, yet industry, prompted by necessity, will not leave us without the necessary supplies.

We could wish to go no further, and, not to wound the ear of humanity, leave untold those rigorous acts of oppression, which are daily exercised in the town of Boston, did we not hope, that by disclaiming their deeds, and punishing the perpetrators, you would shortly vindicate the honour of the British name, and re-establish the violated laws of justice.

That once populous, flourishing and commercial town is now garrisoned by an army sent not to protect, but to enslave its inhabitants. The civil government is overturned, and a mi-

litary despotism erected upon its ruins. Without law, without right, power are assumed unknown to the constitution. Private property is unjustly invaded. The inhabitants, daily subjected to the licentiousness of the soldiery, are forbid to remove, in defiance of their natural rights, in violation of the most solemn compacts. Or if, after long and wearisome solicitation, a pass is procured, their effects are detained, and even those who are most favoured, have no alternative but poverty or slavery. The distress of many thousand people, wantonly deprived of the necessities of life, is a subject, on which we would not wish to enlarge.

Yet we cannot but observe, that a British fleet (unjustified even by acts of your legislature) are daily employed in running our commerce, seizing our ships, and depriving whole communities of their daily bread. Nor will a regard for your honour permit us to be silent, while British troops fully your glory, by actions, which the most inveterate enmity will not palliate among civilized nations, the wanton and unnecessary destruction of Charlestown, a large, ancient, and once populous town, just before deserted by its inhabitants, who had fled to avoid the fury of your soldiery.

If you still retain those sentiments of compassion, by which Britons have ever been distinguished—if the humanity, which tempered the valour of our common ancestors, has not degenerated into cruelty, you will lament the miseries of their descendants.

To what are we to attribute this treatment? If to any secret principle of the constitution, let it be mentioned; let us learn, that the government, we have long revered, is not without its defects, and that while it gives freedom to a part, it necessarily enslaves the remainder of the empire. If such a principle exists, why for ages has it ceased to operate? Why at this time is it called into action? Can no reason be assigned for this conduct? Or must it be resolved into the wanton exercise of arbitrary power? And shall the descendants of Britons tamely submit to this? No, sir! We never will, while we revere the memory of our gallant and virtuous ancestors, we ne-

ver can surrender those glorious privileges, for which they fought, bled and conquered. Admit that your fleets could destroy our towns, and ravage our sea-coasts; these are inconsiderable objects, things of no moment to men, whose bosoms glow with the ardor of liberty. We can retire beyond the reach of your navy, and, without any sensible diminution of the necessaries of life, enjoy a luxury, which from that period you will want; the luxury of being free.

We know the force of your arms; and was it called forth in the cause of justice and your country, we might dread the exertion; but will Britons fight under the banners of tyranny? Will they counteract the labours, and disgrace the victories of their ancestors? Will they forge chains for their posterity? If they descend to this unworthy task, will their swords retain their edge, their arms their accustomed vigour? Britons can never become the instruments of oppression, till they lose the spirit of freedom, by which alone they are invincible.

Our enemies charge us with sedition. In what does it consist? In our refusal to submit to unwarrantable acts of injustice and cruelty? If so, shew us a period in your history, in which you have not been equally seditious.

We are accused of aiming at independence; but how is this accusation supported? By the allegations of your ministers, not by our actions.—Abused, insulted, and contemned, what steps have we pursued to obtain redress? We have carried our dutiful petitions to the throne;—we have applied to your justice for relief; we have retrenched our luxury, and withheld our trade.

The advantages of our commerce were designed as a compensation for your protection: when you ceased to protect, for what were we to compensate?

What has been the success of our endeavours? The clemency of our sovereign is unhappily diverted; our petitions are treated with indignity; our prayers answered by insults. Our application to you remains unnoticed, and leaves us the melancholy apprehension, of your wanting either the will, or the powers, to assist us.

Even under these circumstances,

what measures have we taken that betray a desire of independence? Have we called in the aid of those foreign powers, who are the rivals of your grandeur? When your troops were few and defenceless, did we take advantage of their distress, and expel them our towns? Or have we permitted them to fortify, to receive new aid, and to acquire additional strength?

Let not your enemies and ours persuade you, that in this we were influenced by fear, or any other unworthy motive. The lives of Britons are still dear to us.—They are the children of our parents; and an uninterrupted intercourse of mutual benefits had knit the bonds of friendship. When hostilities were commenced—when, on a late occasion, we were wantonly attacked by your troops, though we repelled their assaults, and returned their blows, yet we lamented the wounds they obliged us to give; nor have we yet learned to rejoice at a victory over Englishmen.

As we wish not to colour our actions, or disguise our thoughts; we shall, in the simple language of truth, avow the measures we have pursued, the motives upon which we have acted, and our future designs.

When our late petition to the throne produced no other effect than fresh injuries, and votes of your legislature, calculated to justify every severity—when your fleets and your armies were prepared to wrest from us our property, to rob us of our liberties or our lives—when the hostile attempts of general Gage evinced his designs—we levied armies for our security and defence. When the powers vested in the governor of Canada, gave us reason to apprehend danger from that quarter—and we had frequent intimations, that a cruel and savage enemy was to be let loose upon the defenceless inhabitants of our frontiers—we took such measures as prudence dictated, as necessity will justify. We possessed ourselves of Crownpoint and Ticonderoga. Yet give us leave, most solemnly to assure you, that we have not lost sight of the object we have ever had in view; a reconciliation with you on constitutional principles; and a restoration of that friendly intercourse, which, to the advantage of both, we till lately maintained,

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The inhabitants of this country apply themselves chiefly to agriculture and commerce. As their fashions and manners are similar to yours, your markets must afford them the conveniences and luxuries for which they exchange the produce of their labours. The wealth of this extended continent centres with you; and our trade is so regulated as to be subservient, only to your interest. You are too reasonable to expect that by taxes (in addition to this) we should contribute to your expense; to believe, after diverting the fountain, that the streams can flow with unabated force.

It has been said, that we refuse to submit to the restrictions on our commerce. From whence is this inference drawn? Not from our words, we having repeatedly declared the contrary, and we again profess our submission to the several acts of trade and navigation passed before the year one thousand seven hundred and sixty-three, trusting, nevertheless, in the equity and justice of parliament, that such of them, as, upon cool and impartial consideration, shall appear to have imposed unnecessary or grievous restrictions, will, at some happier period, be repealed or altered. And we cheerfully consent to the operation of such acts of the British parliament, as shall be restrained to the regulation of our external commerce, for the purpose of securing the commercial advantages of the whole empire to the mother-country, and the commercial benefits of its respective members, excluding every idea of taxation, internal or external, for raising a revenue on the subjects in America without their consent.

It is alleged that we contribute nothing to the common defence: to this we answer, that the advantages which Great Britain receives from the monopoly of our trade, far exceed our proportion of the expense necessary for that purpose. But should these advantages be inadequate thereto, let the restriction of our trade be removed, and we will cheerfully contribute such proportion, when constitutionally required.

It is a fundamental principle of the British constitution, that every man should have at least a representative

share in the formation of those laws by which he is bound. Were it otherwise, the regulation of our internal police, by a British parliament, who are, and ever will be, unacquainted with our local circumstances, must be always inconvenient, and frequently oppressive, working our wrong, without yielding any possible advantage to you.

A plan of accommodation (as it has been absurdly called) has been proposed by your ministers to our respective assemblies. Were this proposal free from every other objection, but that which arises from the time of the offer, it would not be unexceptionable. Can men deliberate with the bayonet at their breasts? Can they treat with freedom, while their towns are sacked—when daily instances of injustice and oppression disturb the slower operations of reason?

If this proposal is really such as you should offer, and we accept, why was it delayed till the nation was put to useless expense, and we were reduced to our present melancholy situation? If it holds forth nothing, why was it proposed? Unless, indeed, to deceive you in a belief that we were unwilling to listen to any terms of accommodation. But what is submitted to our consideration? we contend for the disposal of our property: we are told that our demand is unreasonable, that our assemblies may indeed collect our money, but that they must at the same time offer—not what your exigencies, or ours, may require—but so much as shall be deemed sufficient to satisfy the desires of a minister, and enable him to provide for favourites and dependents. (A recurrence to your own treasury will convince you how little of the money already extorted from us, has been applied to the relief of your burdens). To suppose that we would thus grasp the shadow, and give up the substance, is adding insult to injuries.

We have nevertheless again presented an humble and dutiful petition to our sovereign; and to remove every imputation of obstinacy, have requested his majesty to direct some mode, by which the united applications of his faithful colonists may be improved into a happy and permanent reconciliation. We are willing to treat on such

terms as can alone render an accommodation lasting, and we flatter ourselves, that our pacific endeavours will be attended with a removal of ministerial troops, a repeal of those laws, of the operation of which we complain, on the one part, and a disbanding of our army, and a dissolution of our commercial associations, on the other.

Yet conclude not from this, that we propose to surrender our property into the hands of your ministry, or vest your parliament with a power which may terminate in our destruction. The great bulwarks of our constitution we have desired to maintain by every temperate, by every peaceable means; but your ministers (equal foes to British and American freedom), have added to their former oppressions, an attempt to reduce us by the sword to a base and abject submission. On the sword, therefore, we are compelled to rely for protection. Should victory declare in your favour, yet men trained to arms from their infancy, and animated by the love of liberty, will afford neither a cheap or easy conquest. Of this at least we are assured, that our struggle will be glorious, our success certain, since even in death we shall find that freedom which in life you forbid us to enjoy.

Let us now ask what advantages are to attend our reduction? The trade of a ruined and desolate country is always inconsiderable, its revenue trifling; the expense of subjecting and retaining it in subjection, certain and inevitable. What, then, remains, but the gratification of an ill-judged pride, or the hope of rendering us subservient to designs on your liberty?

Soldiers, who have sheathed their swords in the bowels of their American brethren, will not draw them with more reluctance against you. When too late, you may lament the loss of that freedom, which we exhort you, while still in your power, to preserve.

On the other hand, should you prove unsuccessful—should that connexion, which we most ardently wish to maintain, be dissolved—should your ministers exhaust your treasures—and waste the blood of your countrymen, in vain attempts on our liberty—do they not deliver you, weak and de-

fenceless, to your natural enemies?

Since, then, your liberty must be the price of your victories—your ruin, of your defeat—what blind fatality can urge you to a pursuit, destructive of all that Britons hold dear?

If you have no regard to the connexion that has for ages subsisted between us—if you have forgot the wounds we received fighting by your side, for the extension of the empire—if our commerce is an object below your consideration—if justice and humanity have lost their influence on your hearts—still motives are not wanting, to excite your indignation at the measures now pursued—your wealth, your honour, your liberty are at stake.

Notwithstanding the distress to which we are reduced, we sometimes forget our own afflictions to anticipate and sympathize in yours. We grieve that rash and inconsiderate counsels should precipitate the destruction of an empire, which has been the envy and admiration of ages. And call God to witness! that we would part with our property, endanger our lives, and sacrifice every thing but liberty, to redeem you from ruin.

A cloud hangs over your heads and ours; ere this reaches you, it may probably have burst upon us; let us then (before the remembrance of former kindness is obliterated) once more repeat those appellations which are ever grateful in our ears. Let us intreat heaven to avert our ruin, and the destruction that threatens our friends, brethren, and countrymen on the other side of the Atlantic.

By order of the congress,
JOHN HANCOCK, president,
CHARLES THOMSON, secretary,
Philadelphia, July 8, 1775.

Resolutions agreed to, some time in the year 1776, in the council of safety, at Savannah, in Georgia, to destroy their houses and shipping, rather than let them fall into the hands of their enemies.

*In the council of safety.
For the safety of the province, and the good of the united colonies, it is unanimously resolved,*

THAT the houses in the town of Savannah, and the hamlets thereto belonging, together with the ship-

ping now in our port, the property, or appertaining to the friends of America, who have associated and appeared, or who shall appear in the present alarm to defend the same, and also the houses of widows and orphans, and none others, be forthwith appraised.

Resolved, That it be considered, as a defection from the cause of America, and a defection of property, in such persons, who have and shall leave the town of Savannah, or the hamlets thereto belonging, during the present alarm; and such persons shall be precluded from any support or countenance towards obtaining an indemnification.

Resolved, That it is incumbent upon the friends of America in this province to defend the metropolis, as long as the same shall be tenable.

Resolved, That rather than the same shall be held and occupied by our enemies, or the shipping now in the port of Savannah taken and employed by them, the same shall be burnt and destroyed.

Resolved, That orders shall be issued to the commanding officer, directing him to have the foregoing resolution put into execution.

A true copy from the minutes.

ED. LANGWORTH, sec.



A Prussian edict: by dr. Franklin.

Dantzick, Sept. 5, 1773.

WE have long wondered here at the supineness of the English nation, under the Prussian impositions upon its trade entering our port. We did not, till lately, know the claims, ancient and modern, that hang over that nation; and therefore could not suspect that it might submit to those impositions from a sense of duty, or from principles of equity. The following edict, just made public, may, if serious, throw some light upon this matter.

Frederick, by the grace of God, king of Prussia, &c. &c. &c. to all present and to come, health. The peace now enjoyed throughout our dominions, having afforded us leisure to apply ourselves to the regulation of commerce, the improvement of our finances, and at the same time the easing our domestic subjects in their taxes: for these

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causes, and other good considerations us thereunto moving, we hereby make known, that, after having deliberated these affairs in our council, present our dear brothers, and other great officers of the state, members of the same; we, of our certain knowledge, full power, and authority royal, have made and issued this present edict, viz.

Whereas it is well known to all the world, that the first German settlements made in the island of Britain, were by colonies of people, subject to our renowned ducal ancestors, and drawn from their dominion, under the conduct of Hengist, Horsa, Hella, Uffa, Cerdicus, Ida, and others: and that the said colonies have flourished under the protection of our august house, for ages past; have never been emancipated therefrom; and yet have hitherto yielded little profit to the same: and whereas we ourselves have in the last war fought for and defended the said colonies, against the power of France, and thereby enabled them to make conquests from the said power in America; for which we have not yet received adequate compensation: and whereas it is just and expedient that a revenue should be raised from the said colonies in Britain, towards our indemnification; and that those who are descendants of our ancient subjects, and thence still owe us due obedience, should contribute to the replenishing of our royal coffers; (as they must have done, had their ancestors remained in the territories now to us appertaining): we do therefore hereby ordain and command, that, from and after the date of these presents, there shall be levied, and paid to our officers of the customs, on all goods, wares, and merchandizes, and on all grain and other produce of the earth, exported from the said island of Britain, and on all goods of whatever kind imported into the same; a duty of four and a half per cent. *ad valorem*, for the use of us and our successors. And that the said duty may more effectually be collected, we do hereby ordain, that all ships or vessels bound from Great Britain, to any other part of the world, or from

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any other part of the world to Great Britain, shall, in their respective voyages, touch at our port of Königsberg, there to be unladen, searched, and charged with the said duties.

And whereas there have been, from time to time, discovered in the said island of Great Britain, by our colonists there, many mines or beds of iron-stone; and sundry subjects of our ancient dominion, skilful in converting the said stone into metal, have in time past transported themselves, thither, carrying with them and communicating that art; and the inhabitants of the said island, presuming that they had a natural right to make the best use they could of the natural productions of their country, for their own benefit, have not only built furnaces for smelting the said stone into iron, but have erected plating-forges, slating-mills, and steel-furnaces, for the more convenient manufacturing of the same; thereby endangering a diminution of the said manufacture in our ancient dominion; we do therefore hereby farther ordain, that, from and after the date hereof, no mill or other engine for slitting or rolling of iron, or any plating forge to work with a tilt-hammer, or any furnace for making steel, shall be erected or continued in the said island of Great Britain: and the lord lieutenant of every county in the said island is hereby commanded, on information of any such erection within his county, to order, and by force to cause the same to be abated and destroyed; as he shall answer the neglect thereof to us at his peril. But we are nevertheless graciously pleased to permit the inhabitants of the said island to transport their iron into Prussia, there to be manufactured, and to them returned, they paying our Prussian subjects for the workmanship, with all the costs of commission, freight, and risk, coming and returning; any thing herein contained to the contrary notwithstanding.

We do not, however, think fit to extend this our indulgence to the article of wool; but meaning to encourage not only the manufacturing of woolen cloth, but also the raising of wool, in our ancient dominions;

and, to prevent both, as much as may be, in our said island, we do hereby absolutely forbid the transportation of wool from thence even to the mother country, Prussia:—and that those islanders may be farther and more effectually restrained in making any advantage of their own wool, in the way of manufacture, we command that none shall be carried out of one county into another; nor shall any worsted, bay, or woolen-yarn, cloth, says, bays, kerseys, serges, frizes, druggets, cloth-serges, shalloons, or any other drapery stuffs, or woolen manufactures whatsoever, made up or mixed with wool in any of the said counties, be carried into any other county, or be water-borne even across the smallest river or creek; on penalty of forfeiture of the same, together with the boats, carriages, horses, &c. that shall be employed in removing them. Nevertheless, our loving subjects there, are hereby permitted (if they think proper) to use all their wool as manure, for the improvement of their lands.

And whereas the art and mystery of making hats hath arrived at great perfection in Prussia, and the making of hats by our remoter subjects, ought to be as much as possible restrained. And so far as the islanders before-mentioned, being in possession of wool, beaver, and other furs, had presumptuously conceived they had a right to make some advantage thereof, by manufacturing the same into hats, to the prejudice of our domestic manufacture: we do therefore hereby strictly command and ordain, that no hats or felts whatsoever, dyed or undyed, finished or unfinished, shall be loaden or put into or upon any vessel, cart, carriage, or horse, to be transported or conveyed out of one county in the said island into another county, or to any other place whatsoever, by any person or persons whatsoever, on pain of forfeiting the same, with a penalty of five hundred pounds sterling for every offence. Nor shall any hat-maker in any of the said counties employ more than two apprentices, on penalty of five pounds sterling per month: we intending hereby that such hatmakers, being so restrained both in the production and sale of their commodity, may find no advantage

in continuing their business. But lest the said islanders should suffer inconvenience by the want of hats, we are further graciously pleased to permit them to send their beaver furs to Prussia; and we also permit hats made thereof to be exported from Prussia to Britain, the people, thus favoured, to pay all costs and charges of manufacturing, interest, commotion to our merchants, insurance, and freight, going and returning, as in the case of iron.

And lastly, being willing farther to favour our said colonies in Britain, we do hereby also ordain and command, that all the thieves, highway and street robbers, house breakers, forgers, murderers, so—es, and villains of every denomination, who have forfeited their lives to the law in Prussia, but whom we, in our great clemency, do not think fit here to hang, shall be emptied out of our jails into the said island of Great Britain, for the better peopling of that country.

We flatter ourselves that these our royal regulations and commands will be thought just and reasonable by our much favoured colonists in England, the said regulations being copied from their own statutes of 10 and 11 Will. III. c. 10—3 Geo. II. c. 22.—23 Geo. II. c. 29.—4 Geo. I. c. 11. and from other equitable laws made by their parliaments, from instructions given by their princes, or from resolutions of both houses, entered in to for the good government of their own colonies in Ireland and America.

And all persons in the said island are hereby cautioned not to oppose, in any wise, the execution of this our edict, or any part thereof, such opposition being high treason, of which all who are suspected shall be transported in fetters, from Britain to Prussia, there to be tried and executed according to the Prussian law.

Such is our pleasure.

Given at Potsdam, this twenty-fifth day of the month of August, one thousand seven hundred and seventy-three, and in the thirty-third year of our reign.

By the king in his council,

RECHTMÄSSIG, &c.

Some take this edict to be merely one of the king's *jeux d'esprit*: others suppose it serious, and that he

means a quarrel with England: but all here think the assertion which it concludes with, "that these regulations are copied from acts of the English parliament respecting their colonies," a very injurious one; it being impossible to believe, that a people distinguished for their love of liberty, a nation so wise, so liberal in its sentiments, so just and equitable towards its neighbours, should, from mean and injudicious views of petty immediate profit, treat its own children in a manner so arbitrary and tyrannical!



The impartial chronicle, or the infallible intelligencer; upon the plan, and after the manner of the New York Mercury.—By his excellency William Livingston, esq. governor of the state of New Jersey. Published in Philadelphia, February 18, 1777.

London, September 25, 1776.

WE can assure the public from the most authentic intelligence, that however the rebels in America may flatter themselves with the hopes of starving the British manufacturers by the present discontinuance of their commerce with the mother country, the artificers in woollens were never more fully employed. What has occasioned so great a demand for cloths of all kinds is, the immense quantities constantly exported to the islands of Sumatra and Borneo; the inhabitants of which are determined to dress only in British woollens, during the continuance of the present unnatural and horrid rebellion.

Oct. 25. We are informed by a letter from Barbadoes to a merchant in this city, that to encourage the English manufactories in iron and brass, his house alone may soon expect orders from the West India islands, for ten thousand iron stoves, and fifteen thousand warming pans.

Oct. 28. We learn by an Indianman loaded with tea, that the emperor of Indostan has offered his majesty five hundred elephants out of his own stables, to assist him in suppressing the rebellion in the colonies; but from the difficulty of subsisting these animals in America, his majesty has very politely declined the generous offer; and a splendid embassy will be

dispatched to Delhi, with the thanks of the British court to the Great Mogul, for his imperial munificence, and fraternal affection towards his brother of Britain.—To improve the present amicable disposition of so puissant an ally, to the lasting emolument of the nation, it was moved in council to address his majesty, to propose a match between the prince of Wales and the emperor's eldest daughter; but one of the members observing that the mogul could not, in his opinion, close with the overture unless his royal highness submitted to circumcision, the motion was withdrawn.

Copenhagen, July 4. The king of Denmark has actually stipulated with his majesty, to furnish him by the middle of April next, for the service in America, four thousand Laplanders, who are to be employed in winter, (when the deep snows render the light horse useless) in scouring the country and conveying dispatches in sleds drawn by reindeer, two abreast.

Ispahan, April 2. We hear that the emperor of Persia, on the earnest solicitation of the court of London, is to send next summer into America, three thousand five hundred Korazan archers, who have been trained up in the ancient Parthian manner of fighting, by discharging their arrows from their horses as they are galloping off from their pursuers—a mode of annoying the enemy, which his majesty's light horse may adopt to great advantage, as the rebels frequently compel them to fight in that attitude, or not at all.

As the rebels avail themselves of woods and forests whenever they can, administration is determined to dispatch to America, before the opening of the next campaign, four thousand axe men, to cut down all the forests from Georgia to Ticonderoga, from the sea coast eight hundred miles west into the country.

As the British navy will always be an over-match for any fleet the rebels will be able to equip: but can, on their present construction, be of no use in the American war, after having ruined their trade and laid all their sea-port towns in ashes—a model has been presented to the board of admiralty by Sir Humphrey Mariterrenus, for enabling any of his majesty's ships,

under the burden of a first rate, by the means of wheels and pulleys, and some internal mechanism (which the projector does not choose fully to explain till further encouragement) to pursue the rebels on terra firma, and carry the British naval thunder into the remotest deserts of America. Sir Humphrey insisted upon it to the board, and they unanimously admitted the force of his observation, that however the rebel fortifications might otherwise damage the new-constructed vessels, as they passed them in their progress through the country, it would be impossible for the art of man to sink them.

It is whispered at the court end of the town, that the emperor of Japan intends to lend his majesty twelve thousand of his most veteran troops, who, to save the expense of a circuitous voyage, are to be landed on California; and after having desolated the western frontiers of the continent, with the assistance of as many of the savages residing between the South Sea and the river Ohio as can be procured for that purpose, they are to form a junction with the British troops at New York. The emperor, it is said, is confident of being more successful in procuring these tribes of Indians to follow his standard than administration hath hitherto been on the part of Britain; as he will undertake to convince them, that their ancestors having emigrated from Japan, they owe him the same allegiance and subjection, which the American rebels do to his most gracious majesty.

The British ministry, ever attentive to the national weal, and totally divested of all self-interested motives, or the least thoughts of providing for their families or connexions from the emoluments of this unnatural war; but solely and inflexibly bent on enabling his majesty to triumph over all rebellions (save only such as may be excited in North Britain) and seriously considering that from the amazing extent of the continent of America, the severity of the winter in the northern, and the excessive heat of summer in the southern parts, must be fatal to troops who have been bred in the temperate climes of Europe, are determined to surmount that inconvenience, by the following sagacious ex-

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pedient—they intend to employ thirteen thousand Moors from the coast of Barbary, to act from Augulline as far north as New Jerfey; and four thousand seven hundred Eskimaux from Hudfon's Bay, to act from New Hamphire to the most fouthern limits of the province of New York. *The most gracious fpeech of his imperial majesty the emperor of Lilliput.*

My lords and gentlemen,

I fhould be as merry as a cricket were I able to tell you I had been as good as my word, that the gladiators I had fent to quell the rioters, had brought them upon their marrow-bones. But though I had perfuaded myself that it was only a little rumpus, which a couple of regiments could have drubbed into quiet, they are now grown fo desperately impudent, and fo abfolutely at the beck of their Jack Straws and Wat Tylers, that they pofitively fwear they will, for the future, darn their own ftockings, and make their own fhoes and perriwigs, without laying out a fingle fhilling in any of our warehoufes. Nay, they have contemptuoufly rejected our gracious offers of fpendng their money for them, without giving them the trouble of doing it. They have moreover had the infolence to revive an antiquated pretence that when kings violate the fundamentals of the conftitution, as they call it, their fubjects have a right to refift them; and talk a deal about the Lord knows what; of coronation oaths, and mutual compacts, of which in all my education my noble preceptor never mentioned a fyllable. A doctrine which, however attended with good luck to myself, refpecting a former revolution, is at prefent, and ought for ever hereafter, to be deemed the very quinteffence of treason and rebellion—fuch treason, that if it fhould go on, would gather like a fnow ball; endanger the bankruptcy of every chapman in Lilliput; fhake my throne from top to bottom, and make the whole terraqueous globe fkip like a lamp-lighter. One great advantage, however, will be derived from this avowed running away from their old mafter. It is this. I remember many of you thought laft year that I was moved by the infligation of the devil for fending fire and faggot amongst thofe infurgents; and pretend-

ed confcience forfooth, for not doulfing the ready rhino towards the expedition. But fince thofe mifcreants have now fet up for themfelves, it is evident that they intended it fifty years ago; and it being come to this pafs, that either our trade muft be ruined, or they be made to knock under, I fuppofe we fhall be pot and can in the general conviction, that the kingdom cannot be fupported by keeping clear confciences and lofing our traffic, flock and block.

I am happy to inform you that by the firength of good beef and pork, and the vivacity of four croun, I have once more a chance of eftablifhing arbitrary power in Can. And although from fome crofs accidents, my general could not come to logger-heads with the city of Manhat till the month of Auguft, becaufe he landed, on his arrival in June, with nine thousand troops, and the enemy had then but about fix thousand, which would have occafioned our arms to be victorious without honour: yet our fuccels in that capital, when the rebels thought it not worth defending, has crowned our banners with immortal glory, and been fo decifive as to give the ftrongeft hopes of their fpeedily coming in, cap in hand. Not, gentlemen, that we have already difperfed the mob; for that, upon my word, will cofl us another year's bloody nofes. But then all my neighbours fwear they will ftand by me, and box it out knee deep in mire and dirt, before they will fee me knock'd down by the rebels; and my old crony, 'fquire Bourbon, in particular, who you know has, from time immemorial, taken our family's part in all their quarrels, protefts he will never leave me in the lurch.

I am now employed in fettling an arbitration between two old friends who had like to have come to handy-cuffs, and hope foon to fee all the country round me in peace and jollity. I think, nevertheless, confidering promifes as pipe-crufts, that it behoves us to look to our own clubs and toledoes at home. For I remember into what a woful fluftration we were thrown by Le Chevalier Wou'd be, when he rufhed upon us from the mountains like a whirligig, and made us want new linings to our breeches; and had he come ftraight forward pelf

mell, instead of spending his time in killing Jenny Cameron, he had not left a mother's son of us to tell the story.

Gentlemen of the lower parlour,

I will lay the reckoning for next year before you; and in settling the club, don't be squeamish if it runs higher than you expected. No mortal creature can guess what it costs to quell such execrable riots. I doubt not, however, but my faithful the public purse-keepers will cheerfully vote the cash, as yourselves, your families, and dependents will pocket the better half.

My lords and gentlemen,

In this bloody squabble I can have no earthly view in the world but to save the effusion of blood. No people under the sun ever eat more beef or drank more cider, or took more liberty to eat and drink it when they pleased, than the seditious blanket men. Their spreading their own bread and butter, declares it. Their getting children by natural copulation, evinces it. Their being paid for the work they do, attests it. And their proneness to fight like punk, whenever you attempt to steal their victuals, or to tie them neck and heels, are as clear proofs of it, as that three blue beans are equal in number to three white ones. My desire is only to restore them to the old constitution of eating and drinking, and sleeping, and f— according to my instructions; and to deliver them from despotic ring-leaders of their own choosing, into your gracious hands, to bind them in all cases whatsoever.

[Remainder in our next.]



*Account of the attack upon Quebec.
Published by congress.*

Philadelphia, Jan. 25, 1776.

THE last letters from Canada bring an account of an unsuccessful attempt made to gain possession of Quebec by storm, on the 31st of December last, between the hours of two and seven in the morning.

The general, finding his cannon too light to effect a breach, and that the enemy would not hearken to terms of capitulation, formed a design for carrying the town by escalade. In this he was encouraged by the extensiveness

of the works, and the weakness of the garrison. When every thing was prepared, while he was waiting the opportunity of a snow storm, to carry his design into execution, several men deserted to the enemy. His plan at first was to have attacked the upper and lower town at the same time, depending principally for success against the upper town; but discovering, from the motions of the enemy, that they were apprized of his design, he altered his plan; and, having divided his little army into four detachments, ordered two feints to be made against the upper town, one by colonel Livingston, at the head of the Canadians, against St. John's Gate; the other by captain Brown, at the head of a small detachment, against cape Diamond, reserving to himself and colonel Arnold, the two principal attacks against the lower town.

At five o'clock, the hour appointed for the attack, the general at the head of the New York troops, advanced against the lower town at Aunee de Mere. Being obliged to take a circuit, the signal for the attack was given, and the garrison alarmed, before he reached the place; however, pressing on, he passed the first barrier, and was just opening to attempt the second, when by the first fire from the enemy he was unfortunately killed, together with his aide-camp, captain John M'Pherson, captain Cheeseman, and two or three more. This so dispirited the men, that colonel Campbell, on whom the command devolved, found himself under the disagreeable necessity of drawing them off.

In the mean while colonel Arnold, at the head of about three hundred and fifty of those brave troops (who with unparalleled fatigue had penetrated Canada under his command) and captain Lamb's artillery, had passed through St. Roques, and approached near a two gun battery without being discovered. This he attacked, and though it was well defended for about an hour, carried it with loss of a number of men. In this attack colonel Arnold had the misfortune to have his leg splintered by a shot, and was obliged to be carried to the hospital. After gaining the battery, his detachment passed on to a second bar-

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rier, which they took possession of. By this time the enemy, relieved from the other attacks, by our troops being drawn off, directed their whole force against this detachment, and a party falling out from Palace gate, attacked them in the rear.

These brave men sustained the force of the whole garrison for three hours, but finding themselves hemmed in, and no hopes of relief, they were obliged to yield to numbers, and the advantageous situation the garrison had over them.

No regular return is yet come to hand, but, by the advices received, we learn that our loss in killed and wounded amounts to sixty, and three hundred taken prisoners, who are treated very humanely.

Among the slain, are captain Kendricks and lieutenant Humphries, of the riflemen, and lieutenant Cooper.

After this unfortunate repulse, the remainder of the army retired about three miles from the city, where they posted themselves advantageously, and are continuing the blockade, waiting for reinforcements, which are now on their way to join them.

Every possible mark of distinction was shewn to the corpse of general Montgomery, who was interred in Quebec, on the 2d day of January.

Published by order of congress,
CHARLES THOMSON, sec.



General Carleton's account of the attack on Quebec. In a letter to general Howe, dated Jan. 6, 1776.

SIR,

THE fifth of December, mr. Montgomery took post at St. Croix, within less than two miles of Quebec, with some field artillery; his heavy cannon were landed at Cap Rouge; at the same time Arnold's party took possession of the avenues leading to the town, and prevented all communication with the country. The 9th a woman stole into the town with letters addressed to the principal merchants, advising them to an immediate submission, and promising great indulgence in case of their com-

pliance. Inclosed was a letter to me in every extraordinary language, and a summons to deliver up the town; the messenger was sent to prison for a few days, and drummed out.

To give more efficacy to these letters, five small mortars were brought to St. Roque's, and a battery of five cannon and one howitzer, raised upon the heights within about seven hundred yards of the walls. Soon after Arnold appeared with a white flag, said he had a letter for me, but was refused admittance, and ordered to carry back his letter.

After every preparatory stratagem had been used to intimidate our wretched garrison, as mr. Montgomery was pleased to call it—an assault was given the thirty-first of December, between four and five in the morning, during a snow storm from the north east. The alarm was general: from the side of the river St. Lawrence, along the fortified front, round to the basin, every part seemed equally threatened. Two real attacks took place upon the lower town: one under Cape Diamond, led by mr. Montgomery, the other by mr. Arnold, upon the part called the Saut a Matelot. This at first met with some success, but in the end was stopped. A fall from the upper town under captain Laws, attacked their rear, and sent in many prisoners; captain M'Dougal afterwards reinforced this party, and followed the rebels into the post they had taken. Thus mr. Arnold's corps, himself and a few others excepted, who were wounded and carried off early, were completely ruined. They were caught as it were in a trap; we brought in their five mortars and one cannon. The other attack was soon repulsed with slaughter. Mr. Montgomery was left among the dead.

The rebels have on this assault between six and seven hundred men, and between forty and fifty officers, killed, wounded, and taken prisoner. We had only one lieutenant of the navy, doing duty as a captain in the garrison, and four rank and file, killed, and thirteen rank and file wounded; two of the latter are since dead.

G. C.

Address to his excellency general Washington. By his excellency governor Livingston, of New Jersey.

SAY—on what hallow'd altar shall I find
A sacred spark that can again light up
The muse's ardour in my wane of life,
And warm my bosom with poetic fire,
Extinguish'd long—and yet, O Washington,
Thy worth unequal'd, thy heroic deeds,
Thy patriot virtues, and high-soaring fame,
Prompt irresistibly my feeble arm,
To grasp the long forgotten lyre, and join
The universal chorus of thy praise.

When urg'd by thirst of arbitrary sway
And over-weening pride, a ruthless king
Grim spurn'd us, suppliants, from his haughty throne—
And, in the tyrant, all the father lost;
When to our pray'rs, with humble duty urg'd,
He, Pharaoh-like, his heart obdurate steel'd,
Denouncing dreadful vengeance, unprovok'd,
And all the dire calamities of war—
No ray of mercy beaming from his brow,
No olive-branch extended in his hand:—
A sword unsheath'd, or ignominious yoke,
The only sad alternative propos'd—
Then with one voice, thy country call'd thee forth,
Thee, Washington, she call'd:—with modest blush,
But soul undaunted, thou the call obey'd'st,
To lead her armies to the martial field.—
Thee, Washington, she call'd to draw the sword,
And rather try the bloody chance of war
In virtue's cause, than suffer servile chains,
Intolerable bondage! to inclose
The limbs of those, whom God created free.

Lur'd by thy fame, with thy great virtues charm'd,
And by thy valour fir'd, around thee pour'd
America's long-injur'd sons, resolv'd
To meet the vet'ran troops who oft had borne
Britannia's name, in thunder, round the world.

With warrior-bands, by liberty impell'd,
And all their country glowing at their heart,
And prodigal of blood, when she requir'd,
Tho' destitute of war's essential aids,
(The well-stor'd armory, the nitrous grain,
The roaring cannon, and death-bearing ball)
Thou mad'st the solemn dread appeal to heav'n—
The solemn dread appeal th' Almighty heard,
And smil'd success. Unfabled Africa weigh'd
Our cause in her eternal scales, and found
It just: while all-directing providence,
Invisible, yet seen, mysterious, crown'd,
And more than crown'd our hopes; and, strange to tell!
Made British infidels, like Lucifer,
Believe and tremble. Thou, with troops new-rais'd,
Undisciplin'd—nor to the tented field
Inur'd, hast kept the hostile host aloof;
And oft discomfited: while victory!
The laurel wreath around thy temples twin'd:
And Trenton, Princeton prove thy bold emprise;
Names then unknown to song, illustrious now,
Deriving immortality from thee.

Proceed, heaven-guided chief, nor be dismay'd
At foreign myriads, or domestic foes,
(The bell have foes, and foes evince their worth)
Soon, by one danger rous'd, one soul inspir'd,
One cause defending, on one goal intent,
From ev'ry quarter whence the winds can blow,
Assembled hosts their hero shall attend,
Determin'd to be free—Them shalt thou lead,
To conquest lead, and make the tyrant rue
His execrable purpose to enslave;
And teach e'en British folly to be wise.

Far as th' encircling sun his chariot drives,
Thy fame shall spread; thy grateful country own
Her millions sav'd by thy victorious arm;
And rear eternal monuments of praise.

The arduous task absolv'd, the truncheon broke—
Of future glory, liberty, and peace,
The strong foundations laid, methinks I see
The god-like hero gracefully retire,
And (blood-stain'd Mars for fair Pomona chang'd)
His rural seat regain: his rural seat
At his long-wish'd return, fresh-blooming smiles;
And, in expressive silence, speaks her joy.
There, recollecting oft thy past exploits,
(Feast of the soul, ne'er cloying appetite)
And still assiduous for the public weal;
(Incumbent duty ne'er effac'd) amidst
Sequester'd haunts, and in the calm of life,
Methinks I see thee, Solon-like, design
The future grandeur of confederate states
High-tow'ring: or, for legislation met,
Adjust in senate what thou sav'd'st in war.
And when, by thousands wept, thou shalt resign
Thy sky-infus'd, and sky-returning spark,
May light supernal gild the mortal hour,
But mortal to translate thee into life
That knows not death; then heav'n's all-ruling Sire
Shall introduce thee to thy glad compeers,
The Hampdens, Sidneys, Freedom's genuine sons!
And Brutus' venerable shade, high rais'd
On thrones erected in the taste of heav'n,
Distinguish'd thrones for patriot demigods,
(Who for their country's weal, or toil'd or bled,)
And one reserv'd for thee: there envy's thais
Nor tyrant's'er intrude, nor Slav'ry clanks
Her galling chain; but star-crown'd Liberty,
Resplendent goddess! everlasting reigns.

April, 1778.

An invitation to America.

HITHER, ye poor and persecuted come,
To taste the comforts of a kinder doom!
Ye, whose high souls with gallant warmth disdain
To flatter and betray for sordid gain:
To flaver, like a dog, a tyrant's hand,
And crouch obedient to his vile command;
To prattise arts, disgraceful to the brave,
Fit for a faithless, fawning, cringing slave.
And here, in fields as eminently bless'd,

As those which erst the chosen race possess,
 (From bondage led to the delightful land,
 By their meek ruler and Jehovah's hand)
 And here, devote to Freedom's sacred name,
 With curious skill, a temple we will frame,
 Which upon Doric pillars shall be borne,
 And a severe simplicity adorn ;
 Such as nor Athens e'er, nor Sparta plann'd,
 Nor Rome, the dread and wonder of each land :
 Which, heav'n-protected, ever shall defy
 The traitor's arts and rage of tyranny :
 Or if it should be spoil'd, yet not before
 Its martyr's blood around its scite we pour.



The seasons moralized; by the reverend dr. Dwight.

BEHOLD the changes of the skies,
 And see the circling seasons rise ;
 Hence, let the moral truth refin'd,
 Improve the beauty of the mind.

Winter, late with dreary reign,
 Rul'd the wide unjoyous plain ;
 Gloomy storms with solemn roar
 Shook the hoarse resounding shore.

Sorrow cast her sadness round,
 Life and joy forsook the ground,
 Death with wild imperious sway,
 Bade th' expiring world decay.

Now cast around thy raptur'd eyes,
 And see the beauteous spring arise,
 See, flow'rs invest the hills again,
 And streams re-murmur o'er the plain.

Hark, hark, the joy-inspiring grove
 Echoes to the voice of love ;
 Balmy gales the sound prolong,
 Wafting round the woodland song.

Such the scenes our life displays,
 Swiftly fleet our rapid days ;
 The hour that rolls forever on
 Tells us our years must soon be gone.

Sudden, Death, with mournful gloom
 Sweeps us downwards to the tomb ;
 Life and health and joy decay,
 Nature sinks and dies away.

But the soul in gayest bloom,
 Disdains the bondage of the tomb ;
 Ascends above the clouds of even,
 And raptur'd hails her native heaven.

Youth and peace, and beauty there
 Forever dance around the year ;
 An endless joy invests the pole,
 And streams of ceaseless pleasure roll ;

Light and joy and grace divine,
 With bright and lasting glory shine,
 Jehovah's smiles, with heav'nly ray,
 Diffuse a clear-unbounded day.



AMERICAN ANTIQUITIES, No. IV.—P. 100.

Extract from the ANARCHIAD, Book XX.

*The soliloquy and invocation of WRONGHEAD, with the appearance and
 consolatory speech of the ANARCH.*

NOW marshal'd hosts assembling from afar,
 Prelude the onset of approaching war
 In Wronghead's jealous soul; while thus in sighs
 He breathes hoarse accents to the nether skies.

“O thou dark world where chance eternal reigns,
 And wild misrule the Anarch old maintains,
 Orcus and Hades! hear my fervent pray'r,
 And aid, if wrongheads still deserve your care:
 If you receiv'd me dark'ning from the womb,
 And nurs'd the hope of mischiefs yet to come,
 If busied daily planning pop'lar schemes,
 And nightly wrapt in democratic dreams,
 Fair Discord, as a goddess, I revere,
 And in her vineyards toil from year to year;
 Still active as the princely pow'r of air,
 To sow each jealousy, and till with care;
 If I each long face in the land assail,
 At congress, courts and legal pow'rs to rail;
 If I at trade, great men, and lawyers' fees,
 Have so harangu'd as vulgar ears to please;
 If cant pretence of liberty the while
 Has been th' unvary'd burden of my style,
 If this has gain'd me all the posts I hold,
 With num'rous sal'ries heap'd my chest with gold,
 And fed my hopes that fed'ral ties no more,
 Shall bind the nations of the western shore;
 That local schemes shall lift their narrow scale,
 And our own statesmen through the land prevail;—
 Then hear again, ye pow'rs! that stretch the sway
 Through the wide vast, beneath the solar day,
 Hear, and dispel my anxious doubts and fears,
 To me more dread than certain loss of ears.

“Since the convention fell, no more to rise,
 And grey'd these locks and dim'd these tearful eyes,
 This more minute, less blust'ring plan I try'd,
 Till wish'd success began to feed my pride;
 But now, alas! stern justice rears her head,
 And crowds my days with fears, my nights with dread;
 Those congregated sages, who, ere now,
 Had I my wish, were doom'd to guide the plough,
 Are planning still to build a fed'ral name,
 And blast my laurels with eternal shame;
 The pride of courts still brightens in their eyes,
 And scorning still to pay our debt with lies,
 Have rais'd these martial bands to aid their cause,
 To awe each mob, and execute the laws.

" Shall these succeed? and shall my labour'd schemes,
 Ye sov'reign pow'rs! disperse in empty dreams?"
 He spoke, and breath'd a care-corroding sigh,
 Then through a dark deep vale bent down his eye;
 When lo! a lurid fog began to move,
 And mount in solemn grandeur o'er the grove,
 Convolving mists enroll'd a demon's form,
 But headless, monstrous, shapeless as a storm;
 While Wronghead gaz'd, the fiend sublimer grew,
 Known for the Anarch to his raptur'd view;
 Sudden, as rumbling thunder heard remote,
 These stunning sounds rose grating through his throat,

" Beloved sage, the pow'rs of chaos know
 Your ev'ry fear, and number ev'ry woe;
 Their ken tweeps broader than the bounds of day,
 And thrice ten lengths of hell, their nether sway;
 Where now your world has gain'd that little height,
 Just o'er the precincts of chaotic night,
 We held of old the reign; nor yet despair,
 To hold a wilder mental chaos there.

" Those warlike bands whose music grates thine ear
 Are ills at best, but not the worst we fear;
 (Though they our much lov'd mobs may sorely awe,
 Give union aid, and tone to fed'ral law)—
 More dang'rous foes arise, in learning's dress,
 Arm'd with the pen, and ambush'd in the press.
 The laughing youth, as lessons, learn their page,
 And age approving smiles, while dullards rage:
 Their shafts all poison'd in Pierian springs,
 Seem now impatient on the bending strings
 To pierce their foes;—their arrows drink the fame
 Of each unfed'ral politician's name.
 See our best heroes flagg'ring from the plain,
 With eyes aghast, in curses vent their pain.
 But give your toils not o'er—the human soul
 Sinks by strong instinct far beneath her goal;
 Pierce hie'ring tribes acknowledg'd once my sway,
 From rising morning to the setting day;
 Low bow'd the north, and all the spacious south
 Receiv'd the precepts warm from Anarch's mouth:
 And when o'er eastern climes proud science thone,
 And millions bow'd before her splendid throne,
 A storm of Goths quench'd her meridian light,
 And whelm'd her sons in anarchy and night:—
 There had the mourn'd her everlasting doom,
 But the curs'd press dispell'd the midnight gloom.
 Hence learn, my seer, we shadowy powers who dwell,
 Far in the wilds of space 'twixt this and hell,
 Thron'd on unnumber'd whirlwinds through the void,
 Nor yet by distance, time, or place annoy'd,
 Save where our envious foe with swift surprise,
 Snatch'd that small spot where now creation lies;
 Learn, though strict order guides his world on high,
 Where suns emblaze, and systems vault the sky;
 Yet there we oft in wayward whirls controul
 The mystic, madd'ning mazes of the soul;
 But chief where science sheds her faintest beams,
 And men are haunted worst with waking dreams;

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Where prejudice is headstrong, reason blind,
 The soul unpolish'd, all its views confin'd;
 Where self is all in all; and stubborn will
 Shuts out each good through jealousy of ill.
 Though in thy soul these choicest gifts preside,
 With an unbounded share of humble pride;
 Though all the lesser virtues we can give,
 Instinctive, in thy mind immortal live;
 Though all thy friends late nicknam'd by our foes,
 Each one his duty, task and drudgery knows,
 As plann'd by thee, yet know, my faithful fear,
 These plans alone can scarce survive the year.—
 The lamp of science must be quench'd in night,
 Till none, or next to none, can read or write,
 The press, anon, in brazen chains must groan,
 First watch'd and guarded by our saints alone;
 The num'rous schools that rise along the shore,
 Must fall successive, and must rise no more;
 The wits be hang'd—the congress forc'd to flee
 To western wilds, or headlong to the sea.

“ Then shall ten thousand whirlwinds lead the way,
 And the true Anarch here exalt his sway;
 Before his face a flood of darkness roll,
 Blot the dim day, and whelm the sinking pole;
 Confusion, chaos, chance, his course attend,
 Hoarse rumour rave, and hell's own mobs ascend;
 His sons on fierce tornadoes hail from far,
 The black effulgence of his walking car,
 And throng his courts; old Night's dark eyes shall glow,
 Like seas of boiling tar, or hills of lamp-black snow.”

New Haven, Feb. 22, 1787.



Foreign intelligence.

LONDON, November 11.

IT is not a little strange that the present continental war should have begun between the Turks and Russians, and that in the first campaign, they should take as little notice concerning each other, as if they were at perfect peace.

By the present emperor of Germany's code of laws, death is not applied even to the punishment of high treason. Rigorous imprisonment, bread and water as nourishment, and severe whipping once a year, constitute the severest part of the imperial code. The indolence, but not the brevity of our criminal jurisprudence, makes the necessity of frequent transportation; not considering that the most honest individual in society would often wish himself in the situation of the robber, to be transported from misery

in his own country, at the expense of the state, and experience no more punishment for actual criminality, than he is doomed to feel from actual poverty.

The *tiers etat*, in France, has evidently gained the ostensible favour of government, who now go with it on almost every subject. M. Neckar finds that nothing can be effected without its assistance, and therefore prudently divides with the majority in opposition to the clergy and nobles.

The following are the principal requests made to the crown by the *tiers etat*, on the subject of its representation at the meeting of the states general:

“ That his majesty be humbly petitioned to order that the *tiers etat* be permitted to send an equal number of representatives to the states general as the clergy and nobles united.

“ That its deputies be chosen from the general body of the nation, enti-

tled to give their vote. That all placemen, king's advocates, as well as those dependent on particular lords of sovereignties, renters of districts, and all persons either directly or indirectly under the controul of the clergy or nobility, be excluded from the right to vote.

"That each city and district shall send a certain number of deputies according to its commerce, population, and consequence.

"That his majesty be requested to consider that the forms of the states general, as in 1664, are compatible with the ideas of an enlightened age."

We may learn from the foregoing representations how nearly the spirit of the French nation aims at the constitution of this country.

In regard to other objects—the equalization of taxes is the most important.

The *tiers etat* insists on a fair and equitable mode of taxation;—and that the high shall pay in proportion with the low; in short, that every man shall pay according to his income.

This is, indeed, worthy of the enlightened sentiments of the French, and does the age immortal honour.

It is a general computation, that Great Britain contains ten thousand attorneys, and that on a moderate calculation, they make three hundred and fifty pounds per annum each man. This produces the sum of three million five hundred thousand pounds per annum, clear profits of litigation, paid to support ten thousand men, whose business could, with one tenth of the number, and one fiftieth part of the expense, be transacted, much more to the satisfaction and comfort of the clients. To this enormous exaction of three millions and a half, drained out of the pockets of the public, if we add the expenses of the courts, the stamp duties, the salaries of judges and law officers, the expenses of writs and executions, the fees to council, the compliments to bailiffs, and the loss that society sustains by the immurement of numbers who lie in jails unable to pay their fees, and the sums paid for the support of those jails, we may justly say, that the law, instead of being a relief to the nation, is one of its most enormous burdens, and a weight, of the pres-

sure of which, every person, not interested in its profits, most loudly complains.

Some very important discoveries have lately been made in the southern whale fishery, which, if properly noticed and nurtured, may be of the greatest service to this country. The account is literally as follows: a large bay has been lately discovered on the southern peninsula of Africa, within 40 leagues or thereabouts of the Cape of Good Hope, where whales are in such abundance, that there is always a certainty of many more ships, than we at present employ annually in the Greenland whale fishery, getting a complete lading in a very short time, and it is the more likely to be very valuable, as many of those whales are of the spermacei kind. The length of the voyage is the principal, and probably almost the only objection that can be made, being five times as long as a voyage to Greenland; but this is overbalanced by the certainty of a cargo. In the Greenland fishery the uncertainty is very great; many of the ships come home clear, some are lost in the ice, few catch more than a fourth part of what they could contain, or to make good the expenses, were it not for the national bounty. In the southern bay the sea is open, and clear of ice. A plan of establishment and regulation for this fishery is now before government; it remains to be seen what use they will make of it.

Dec. 10. Of a decaying and ruinous state of trade, of an increase of a most pernicious luxury and dissipation in this kingdom in general, and the metropolis in particular, a more demonstrative, powerful, and convincing proof cannot possibly be adduced, than the success of lotteries.

48,000 English tickets, at	£.
16 <i>l.</i> 10 <i>s.</i>	792,000
40,000 Irish tickets, at	
7 <i>l.</i> 10 <i>s.</i>	300,000
	<hr/>
	1,092,000

One million and ninety-two thousand pounds gambled away in lotteries in less than three months, and chiefly in this metropolis, most unquestionably shews the rotten state of trade, commerce, and manufactures, and stamps the national character with

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disgrace. The minister of this country is by no means to blame for taking an advantage of this furious spirit of gaming, to draw a revenue from the English lottery of 250,000*l.* annually.

Dec. 11. In the year 1735, there were exported from the port of Cork 107,161 barrels of beef, 7379 of pork, and 13,401 casks, with 83,727 firkins, of butter. This prodigious exportation, though it happily favoured the mercantile interest of that city, bore testimony to the bad condition of the kingdom. Happily a better principle, from fortuitous occurrences (if we may be allowed the term) directs the affairs of Ireland at present, and its good genius has opened other sources which promise more universal happiness. Those vast exportations are over, and agriculture, that friend to population, extended wider.

It is probable that the object of the meeting of the notables, and the consequences likely to result from it, will be of far greater importance than is supposed; the more especially as this assembly is the prelude to another, namely the states general of France, which we venture to say will produce a total regeneration in the present absolute monarchical system of that government.

The primary object of this meeting, is to fix the mode of election to be observed in forming the states general. The members are the same as assembled last year. They are chiefly under the influence of the crown, and will therefore resolve on those measures his majesty is advised to.

The divisions on this question run exceedingly high. The contest lies between the crown, the clergy, and the nobles, on one hand, and the people on the other. The former contends for a new mode of election in forming the states general, which includes a greater share of the clergy and nobility, and fewer of the third estate; the latter insist on the same election as at the last meeting in 1664.

It is expected that the notables will deliberate on this question for a month to come. They will probably declare for the new form, in which case the parliaments will protest, and in the end get the better.

Opinion has undergone a total change in France within the last few

months. Republican principles are the only ones which are now attended to, and not only the debates of parliament are equally free with our own, but the writings more libellous than any published here. It generally happens, that people go from one extreme to the other.

The French are meditating to new model their constitution.

It is now decided that the states shall not meet until towards the middle of March.

An idea has even been circulated, and with much apparent foundation, that the people are determined to refuse the supplies, unless consulted more in the appropriation of them, and allowed a further number of votes. They contend that the clergy and nobles may pass what resolutions they please, but if they are made the necessary tools, when their services are wanted, they will withhold their supplies, and starve them into a compliance—that the people of France amount to twenty-four millions—that of these, twenty-three millions support the other remaining part, who claim all the powers without contributing in an equal degree to the expense of the state.

Dec. 22. This day in the house of commons, mr. Pitt moved the order of the day, for the house to resolve itself into a committee on the state of the nation. He then moved, that the report of the committee, appointed to examine the physicians, who had attended his majesty during his illness, and also the report of the privy council, on the same subject, together with the report of the committee appointed to look for precedents, should be read. He then proceeded to the business of the day. The fatal consequence of the king's illness, he said, from the examination of his physicians, appeared to be a total incapacity for governing. The nation had, indeed, the consoling hope held out to them by the physicians, that this incapacity might, and would be removed; in the mean time, and until the best of kings be restored to the power of being serviceable to his people, it was the duty of the other two branches of the legislature, to provide for the public safety, and to supply the defect, occasioned by his majesty's illness, which had interrupted the exercise of

the functions belonging to the other branches of the legislature.

When he turned his thoughts on this subject, it was impossible not to take notice of some doctrines that had been laid down in the house of commons, and supported in another assembly, by great legal authority. It had been asserted, that the heir apparent had a right to the regency and administration of public affairs, during the incapacity of a king. Of such a right, he was not able to discover the smallest trace in the records, or history of the nation; on the contrary, he found in those records an uninterrupted chain of evidence, to prove, that no such right had any existence in law; therefore, before the pretence of such a right could, with any colour of argument, be supported, all the records of the country, relating to regencies, should previously be destroyed. He then took up the report of the committee appointed to search for precedents, and going through all the precedents quoted in it, he shewed that the constant and invariable practice of our ancestors took away all ground for any right in the heir apparent in the regency.

On the other hand, he was ready to admit, that the heir apparent was the fittest object for the choice of parliament, when there was a question of making a regent, but, at the same time, he contended, whenever the heir apparent was appointed regent, his regency was the creature, not of the law, but of the parliament.

He was sorry that the question of the prince's right to the regency had ever been started; but, since persons of such weight had contended for it, it was fit that parliament took it into consideration. The two houses should be jealous of their own rights, and not suffer them to be infringed through servile complaisance. It was a duty they owed themselves, their country and posterity, to the prince himself, and to his illustrious house, not to suffer such a question of right as this to remain afloat; they should come to a vote upon it, and settle it forever. Such a proceeding could not possibly produce any bad consequences; but would, on the contrary, secure the tranquility not only of the present generation, but of posterity.

He declared that the measures he was about to propose, did not arise from any personal consideration; he would most willingly have concurred in supporting the right of his royal highness to the regency, if he had found it any where but in assertions of members of parliament. But his duty to his country, superior to all other considerations, compelled him to withstand the doctrine of such a right, and to shew, as he trusted he had shewn, that it was unfounded in law, and overturned by every precedent to be found in the country.

He then moved three resolutions:

1st. That it appears, that, from the present state of his majesty's health, his majesty is incapable of transacting public affairs.

2d. That it is the duty of the lords, spiritual and temporal, and of the commons of Great Britain, to supply the deficiency occasioned by his majesty in one of the three estates of parliament.

3d. That the person who shall be appointed regent, be empowered to give the royal assent to a bill for creating him regent, and for limiting the powers that shall be vested in him.

The first and third resolutions were agreed to without a division; but the house divided on the second, which was carried by a majority of sixty-four.

In the debate it appeared to be understood, in all parts of the house, that mr. Fox is soon to supersede mr. Pitt in office.

When dr. Willis was examined relative to his majesty's situation, he said he entertained little doubt of his recovery. Experience in that line enabled him to assert this with the greater confidence. In the course of eighteen years' practice, he had known several persons, of different habits and ages, affected with the same species of malady; nine-tenths of whom recovered; scarcely any relapsed, and those that did, on being a second time restored, continued ever after without having the slightest visitation of that disease. On the question, if he could point out a reason for his majesty's illness, he answered, that he really believed, attention to public business, living too abstemiously, and taking too much exercise, were the causes; and that the medicines he had

prescribed, were intended to counteract those causes: and that from their effect he was induced to believe his opinion on these points was well grounded. Being asked the shortest and longest time of recovery, he replied, the shortest from six weeks to two months, and the longest, a year and a half.

American intelligence.

Shelburne, (Nova-Scotia.)

Jan. 29. By a statement from the custom-house books, it appears that the exports have increased the last year, to the value of twenty thousand dollars—A very flattering circumstance to this settlement, which must prove highly agreeable to our readers, and to the friends of Shelburne abroad. Added to this it is with the highest pleasure we can assert, that our imports have decreased in a much greater proportion; also, that there are now shipping and ready to ship at this port, between four and five thousand quintals of dried fish, and a quantity of pickled fish, and oil and lumber enough lying ready to load a number of vessels of burden.

Boston.

March 9. We hear from New-Hampshire, that the legislature of that state have, at their late session, manifested their attention to and patronage of the cause of literature, by a grant of forty-one thousand acres of valuable land, adjoining Connecticut river, to Dartmouth university. In addition to this gift, we hear, that the state of Vermont have lately granted to that seminary a valuable township, containing twenty-three thousand acres.

May such noble examples of beneficence be retained in honourable remembrance by the friends of science, and excite imitation in other states and nations, for the benefit of arts and knowledge through the world.

We are told, that in the town of Reading, there were filled in one mill, the late season, upwards of three thousand yards of broadcloth.

March 18. The votes in South Carolina, for president and vice president of the united states, were, for President, gen. Washington 7
V. P. Hon. mr. Rutledge 5
His excellency gov. Hancock 2
Vot. V

We are told, that orders have been issued by his excellency our worthy governor to col. Tyler, commandant of the first troop of horse in Suffolk division, to hold his troop in readiness to escort his excellency the vice president of the united states, when he shall set out for the seat of federal government.

Last week the general assembly of Rhode Island, convened at Greenwich, negatived a motion for calling a state convention for considering the federal constitution by the usual majority.

Gloucester, (Mass.)

Feb. 12. Yesterday being the anniversary of the birth-day of the illustrious Washington, the inhabitants of this town testified their patriotism and joy on the occasion, by displaying, in every part of the harbour, that flag, for the independence of which we are indebted to this hero. In the afternoon, the independent corps of artillery assembled, and gave a federal discharge of cannon; when they were entertained by some gentlemen of the town, ever happy to reward its federal and patriotic citizens; after which, another discharge of thirteen cannon, and three huzzas, closed the day, with that conviviality and cheerfulness, which are always apparent on such important occasions.

Salem.

Feb. 24. Last week, two sleighs, loaded with peltry, came to this town from Detroit, in Canada.

Providence.

Feb. 19. The nineteenth of last month, as two young men were digging sand, at a place called Sandy-hill, about half a mile from Pawtucket bridge, in North Providence, they came to a den about four feet under ground, where lay twenty-five black snakes. They were extended at full length in the sand in one heap—none were less than three, and some were six feet in length; they were not so spry as in the summer season, so none escaped being killed.

New York.

Feb. 25. We are informed that the committee for procuring subscriptions for the purpose of encouraging American manufactures in this city, have already obtained signatures for seventeen hundred and fifty pounds, in shares of ten pounds each.

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Feb. 26. At a meeting of the subscribers for the encouragement of American manufactures in this city, held at the coffee house, on the twenty-fourth instant, Alexander Robertson, esq. in the chair, the following persons were nominated as a committee to prepare the draft of a constitution, and a plan of operation, to be reported at a future meeting:

The honourable judge Hobart, general Malcolm, mr. Alexander Robertson, mr. James Watson, mr. White Matlack, mr. John Murray, jun. and mr. John Pintard.

The following characters are held up at different places, as candidates for the office of governor of this state, viz.

His excellency George Clinton.

The hon. Pierre Van Cortlandt.

The hon. Robert Yates.

Chief justice Morris.

March 5. Yesterday being appointed for the meeting of congress under the new constitution, the day was ushered in by the firing of cannon and the ringing of bells—which were repeated at twelve o'clock, and at sunset. A general joy pervaded the whole city on this great, important, and memorable event; every countenance testified a hope, that, under the auspices of the new government, commerce would again thrive—the farmer meet a ready market for his produce—manufactures flourish—and peace and prosperity adorn our land.

March 6. On the first Monday in April, the voters of each county throughout the state of Georgia, are to meet, for the purpose of appointing, from each county, three suitable persons, to meet in Augusta, on the first Monday in May, vested with full powers to consider the amendments and alterations which were made in the constitution of that state in November last, and fully to adopt and ratify the same, &c. This is recommended by a resolve of the legislature of that state.

March 14. The exertions of the inhabitants of this city to accommodate the grand congress of the united states, with a building suitable to their dignity, are truly worthy of record, and entitle them to the grateful acknowledgments of their fellow-citizens, not only in this state, but in

every part of the union. Their readiness and liberality in this respect, stand unprecedented, and sufficiently evince their patriotic disposition to support the honour and dignity of the national government. Though the expense of the building will finally be liquidated by a tax on the city and county at large, yet it is solely to the public-spiritedness of our citizens, that we may attribute the erection of such a superb edifice—an edifice that would grace any metropolis in Europe; and it is to those gentlemen, who so voluntarily and cheerfully lent their credit for this purpose, that we are indebted for the state of perfection to which it has been brought—a state which few could expect in so short a period.

The convenience and elegance of federal hall, must afford infinite pleasure to the honourable body for whose reception it has been erected—For them it will be pleasing to behold in our citizens, such a striking instance of their attachment to them, as the immediate representatives of this extensive empire, and it is sincerely hoped, will inspire them with a predilection for our capital, in so much as to induce them to fix upon it as the place of their permanent residence, for which, beyond all manner of doubt, it is much better calculated than any other on the continent—and for us it will be a joyful sensation to reflect, that we have not only fulfilled our duty as members and brethren of a community, who have one common interest for their object, but also, that we have tended to the aggrandizement of the union, and extended our influence as much as possible to promote the respectability of the general government.

March 17. By a letter from a gentleman in Gibraltar to his friend in Philadelphia, dated the 8th December last, we learn that several Algerine corsairs had sailed out of the Streights; from which great danger was to be apprehended of their boarding some of our trading ships at sea.

March 18. We are informed that a subscription paper is now handing about this city, for the purpose of raising a sum of money to defray the expense of fireworks, intended to be

exhibited on the arrival of the illustrious president of the united states.

March 23. Yesterday morning arrived in thirty-five days from Lisbon, the ship *North Carolina*, captain Haddock. By her we learn, that his royal highness the prince of Wales was declared sole regent of the kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland, in consequence whereof, the right honourable William Pitt had resigned his offices of first lord of the treasury and chancellor of the exchequer, in which, it is said, he will be succeeded by the right honourable Charles James Fox. This will of course bring into a new administration the powerful interests of the following noble personages—

The dukes of Norfolk, Bedford, Northumberland, Devonshire, Portland, and Grafton; and the lords Stormont, Montserrat, Sandwich, Huntingdon, Rawdon, Grosvenor, Fitzwilliam, Abingdon, and Guildford; and the following eloquent leaders in the house of commons—Sheridan, Burke, Jack Lee, Pulteney, Selwyn, Fitzpatrick, Courteney, Francis (of East India) the Lonsdales, &c. &c.

We also have advice by the same channel, of the long expected death of his majesty Charles the III^d. of Spain, in his seventy-fourth year, of which he had reigned near thirty. The prince of Asturias, it is presumed, will succeed to the crown, being heir apparent.

Charleston, South Carolina.

Feb. 13. Yesterday the house of representatives agreed to lay a tax of one dollar per annum on slaves, free negroes, mestizoes, and on wheels of carriages.

The yeas and nays were taken on the above question, when there appeared yeas 80, nays 68.

It was mentioned in the debate, that the produce of this state was so much on the increase, that there had been raised in the year 1788, double the quantity of tobacco, exported, as produced in 1787, and a superiority over that year, of thirty thousand tierces of rice. It was also said that the price of indigo bettered so much, that a number of planters, who had been about to decline raising that staple commodity, inclined to give it another trial.

Feb. 14. Yesterday the house of representatives agreed to lay a tax of ten shillings per cent. ad valorem, on all lands in this state, on every hundred pounds value of lots and buildings in any city, village or borough.

The yeas and nays being called for, there appeared to be, yeas 92, nays 38.

Feb. 26. The house of representatives yesterday disagreed with the senate in an alteration of the bill for removing the public records from Charleston to Columbia; also, negatived a proposition for assisting the inland navigation company, by an emission of bills of credit, for facilitating the opening of canals.

Baltimore.

Feb. 13. The important day in the annals of America is past, which conferred on a single citizen those sovereign powers that require to be placed in one person, in order to render a nation happy in peace and prosperous in war. Perhaps that day has exhibited what has never happened before in any part of the globe; above three millions of people, scattered over a country of vast extent, of opposite habits and different manners, all fixing their hopes and wishes on the same man, and unanimously voting for him only, without the intervention of force, artifice, plan, or concert. With what delight will the lover of mankind dwell on this period of history, and cherish the memory of a people, who could thus feel and thus reward a life of great and virtuous actions! We shall be excused for closing this account, with a wish that the people of America may have many other such opportunities of reassuring their deliverer of their love and attachment.

Philadelphia, March 2.

A plan has been agreed upon by a number of the inhabitants of Carlisle, for the establishment of a cotton manufactory in that town. If one half of the capital sums that have been sunk in country stores and taverns, since the peace, had been employed in useful manufactures, they would, before this time, have extricated us from debt, and have made us a happy and independent people. It is to be hoped, that hereafter, the test of the good character of a village, in Pennsylvania, will be the small number of taverns and stores, and the great num-

ber of valuable manufactories that are established in it.

March 3. A letter from an American gentleman, in St. Augustine, to his friend, in Alexandria, dated Jan. 12, 1789, says, "Our vessels are received with the greatest cordiality by the Spaniards. Governor Zepodez pays the greatest attention to every American, who comes properly recommended; and the friendly treatment our countrymen receive from the officers of the Irish brigade, stationed in this town, must lay every American under the greatest obligations, to those hospitable sons of Flibernia. Flour, and all kind of provisions from the united states, find a good market here; the commerce in the above articles being entirely free. This indulgence we owe to the uncultivated state of this province, for St. Augustine, the garrisons on St. John's and St. Mary's, are the only inhabited parts of East-Florida, and these are occupied by men of the military profession, who raise nothing except money, the whole of which is laid out in American produce. Since my arrival here, I have had the satisfaction of conversing with the famous Alexander M'Gillivray, whose name you have so often seen in our public prints—this interview has fully convinced me, that he really is the man, our papers sometimes represent him to be, and that his neighbours, the Georgians, have much to fear from his penetrating genius and great address. The attention paid him by the Spaniards, seems to have something more than common politeness in view—they tell me he holds a general's commission under the crown of Spain; thus I have reason to believe, as I have seen him in the Spanish uniform at the governor's table, and receive the military honours of the garrison. This is a policy for which they are not to blame, as M'Gillivray's connexions, from his infancy up to this day, with the different Indian nations in the southern part of America, have established him the supreme legislator over their countries. The Spaniards, but indifferently established in this quarter, and sensible of his power, dread his consequence. A new treaty has lately been established between them and M'Gillivray, as

king of the Creek nation, by which it is stipulated, that the navigation of that part of the Gulf of Mexico, on which St. Mark (an old abandoned fort) is situated, shall be free for the vessels belonging to the said nation. Agreeably to this article, M'Gillivray, in connexion with some of the most respectable merchants, on the island of Providence, has actually established warehouses, at St. Mark, in West-Florida; from whence he carries on an extensive and most profitable trade with the Indians, and even our white settlements on the western waters. Thus you see, an individual, with no other than savage connexions, has concluded a treaty of navigation, which the exertions and wisdom of congress never yet could obtain."

March 4. From the zeal with which several states urge their claims to the perpetual residence of congress among them, it is evident that the sooner that great question is determined, the better—otherwise it will prove the cause not only of disputes, but of such jealousies, as may lay the foundation of dissensions that may prove fatal to the union.

In general assembly, Thursday, March 5, 1789. A. M.

Resolved, That the members of the senate and house of representatives of the united states, from this state, be authorized to make a respectful offer to congress, of the use of any or all the public buildings in Philadelphia, the property of the state, and of the buildings lately erected on the state house square, belonging to the city and county of Philadelphia, in case congress should at any time incline to make choice of this city, for the temporary residence of the federal government.

March 18. Of the many manufactories that have lately been set on foot in the united states, the nail factory, lately established at Harrisburg, is not the least deserving of notice, where, from the labour of two men, and two lads of about fourteen years of age, are produced one hundred and twenty thousand of well made nails and sprigs per week, which are made by cutting, without either fire or drawing, and equal in goodness to any others—a striking instance of our being able to

furnish ourselves with those valuable articles, at much cheaper rates, than they can be imported; and a sufficient inducement to encourage and promote the inventions and industry of our own country.

March 19. A letter from governor Sevier, to the privy council of the new state of Franklin, dated at Buffalo-Creek, Jan 12, 1789, says, "It is with the utmost pleasure I inform your honours, that the arms of Franklin gained a complete victory over the combined forces of the Creeks and Cherokees, on the 10th instant; since my last, I received information that the enemy were collecting in a considerable body, near Flint-Creek, within 25 miles of my head-quarters, with an intention to attack me; to improve this favourable opportunity, I immediately marched my corps towards the spot, where I at length arrived, after enduring great hardships by the immense quantity of snow and the piercing cold. On the morning of the 10th instant, we were within a mile of the enemy; we soon discovered the situation of their encampment by the smoke of the fires, which we found extended along the foot of the Apalachian mountain. I called a council of war of all the officers, in which it was agreed, to attack the enemy without loss of time, and in order to surround them, I ordered general M'Carter, with the bloody rangers and the tomahawk-men, to take possession of the mountain, the only pass I knew that the Indians could retreat by; whilst I, with the rest of the corps, formed a line, nearly extending from the right to the left of their wings.

"The arrival of general M'Carter on the mountain, and the signal for the attack, was to be announced by the discharge of a grasshopper, which was accordingly given, and the attack began. Our artillery soon roused the Indians from their huts, who finding themselves pretty nearly surrounded on all sides, they tried to save themselves by flight, from which they were prevented by our riflemen, posted behind the trees; their case being thus desperate, they made some resistance, and killed the people who were serving our artillery. Our ammunition being much damaged by the

snow on our march, and the enemy's in good order, I found it necessary to abandon that mode of fight, and trust the event to the sword and tomahawk: accordingly gave orders to that purpose; col. Loid, with one hundred horsemen, charged the Indians with sword in hand, and the rest of the corps followed with their tomahawks. The battle soon became general, by general M'Carter coming down the mountain, to our assistance; death presented itself on all sides in shocking scenes, and in less than half an hour the enemy ceased making resistance, and left us in possession of the bloody field. The loss the enemy sustained in this action, is very considerable; we have buried one hundred and forty five of their dead, and by the blood we have traced for miles, all over the woods, it is supposed the greatest part of them retreated with wounds—our loss is very inconsiderable: it consists of five dead, and sixteen wounded: amongst the latter is the brave M'Carter, who, whilst taking off the scalp of an Indian, was tomahawked by another, whom he afterwards killed with his own hand; I am in hopes this good and brave man will survive. I have marched the army back to the former cantonment, at Buffalo-creek, where I must remain until I receive some supplies for the troops, which I hope will be sent soon—we suffer most for the want of whiskey."

March 30. A letter from Winchester, dated March 18, says, "Several gentlemen have lately arrived in town from Kentucke, by whom we have been informed, that a general and uninterrupted trade has taken place between the inhabitants of that country and those of the Spanish settlement at New Orleans; several boats loaded with goods to a very considerable amount, having arrived before our informants came away; that in return they took large quantities of tobacco, beef, corn, &c. and that from every appearance, this traffic was likely to be continued and carried on with the greatest alacrity, which cannot fail to prove of infinite and mutual advantage.

We are further informed, that most of the settlements in the quarter of Kentucke are now undisturbed by the

savages, no hostilities having for some time past been committed by them except at the Little Miami, where, about five weeks since, a Shawanese chief, called Black Fish, and one of the Wiandot chiefs, with a number of warriors, took three white people who were out surveying, and brought them in, under guard, to the garrison stationed at the mouth of the Little Miami. Their pretensions were to settle a treaty with the garrison, which our informants say was completed on good terms, by captain Mac Geath and others. The Shawanese chief was so fond of captain Mac Geath, that he offered to take him through the Indian country. These chiefs and warriors afterwards had it in their power to destroy three crews and their effects, but they proved friendly, furnished them with provisions, and treated them kindly.

The Shawanese and Wiandots had several times before taken prisoners and brought them into the garrison, with professions of friendship; but it was suspected their only intentions were to make their observations and get liquors, but from the above pacific conduct, the white inhabitants begin to put some confidence in them, and please themselves with the hope of enjoying a peaceable summer.

Saturday last, in the general assembly, a bill was enacted into a law, for appointing a register general, "for the purpose of registering the accounts of this state;" and to whom the accounts of the comptroller-general of this commonwealth are to be submitted, "before he, the comptroller, shall finally settle the same." By the act aforesaid, that part of the act of April 1785, which "secures to the present comptroller-general a continuance in office for the term of seven years," is repealed, and made void. And the legislature have appointed John Donnaldfon, esq. register-general of this commonwealth.

Same day the general assembly adjourned till the third Tuesday in August next.

A letter from a gentleman in New-York, dated the 26th instant, says "I have waited for some time, with expectation of having it in my power to inform you, that the congress had proceeded to business; but am sorry

to say, they remain *in statu quo*—As yet, twenty-six representatives and ten senators. When they will have a quorum, is uncertain; it depends however, on the states of Jersey and Delaware, for senators. The lower house, it is said, will be formed to-morrow."

MARRIED.

MASSACHUSETTS.

In Boston. Mr. Nathaniel Ayers to miss Katy Gardner. Mr. Caleb Loring to miss Nancy Greely. Mr. James Read to miss Mercy Pease. At Braintree. Rev. Jacob Norton to miss Betsey Cranch.

At Charlestown. Captain James Prince to miss Agnes Gordon.

NEW YORK.

In the capital. Mr. John Ireland to miss Lawrence.

PENNSYLVANIA.

In Philadelphia. Dr. Charles Ashford by Beatty, of Georgetown, on the Patowmac, to the amiable miss Eunice Beal. Mr. Jacob Cox, to miss Hilzheimer.

DELAWARE.

In Wilmington. Henry Latimer, esquire, to miss Nancy Richardson.

DIED.

MASSACHUSETTS.

In Boston. Mr. Robert M'Elroy. Mrs. Esther Fletcher Stoughton. Mrs. Mary Burns. Mrs. Codman. At Salem. William Pyncheon, esq.

CONNECTICUT.

In Newhaven. Suddenly, Mr. Stephen Brittol.

RHODE ISLAND.

At Newport. Mr. Jacob Roderigo Rivera.

VERMONT.

General Ethan Allen.

NEW YORK.

In the capital. Mrs. Catharine Crosby. Mr. Barnet Sebring.

At Clinton. Mrs. Magaret Stoutenbergh, aged 98 years.

NEW JERSEY.

At Timbercreek. Mr. Richard Cheefman, aged 82 years.

PENNSYLVANIA.

In Philadelphia. Mr. John Byrne. Mrs. Williams, wife of colonel Williams,

- In Germantown. Miss Engle. Near Baltimore. George Resleau,
 In York county. Colonel Robert jun. esquire.
 M'Pherson. VIRGINIA.
 DELAWARE. Near Alexandria. Robert Adam,
 In St. George's Hundred. Ni- esq. aged 60 years.
 cholas Vandyke. In Petersburg. Mrs. Amanda Bac-
 MARYLAND. kus.
 In Baltimore. Mr. Patrick Rice.

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Errata.—Page 177, col. 1. line 21, for *young* read *youth*; line 43, for *as fortune* read *imfortunate*.